manpower

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
October 1974

Want Ads and the Job Market

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DOCUMENTS DEPARTMENT

manpower
volume 6 number 10 U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

Starting Points

Coffee, a cigarette, and the want ads.

That's the way millions of Americans start their day. Some of them are unemployed and looking for jobs, others have a job but are seeking a change, and some are merely curious about what jobs are open, where they are, and how much they pay. There is an aspect to the want ads, however, other than their interest to the individual worker. Do the want ads in a local newspaper constitute a reasonably accurate cross-section of the local job market? Are the types of jobs, the pay scales, and the employment requirements listed in want ads a scaled-down but proportional picture of the overall job scene? In short, are want ads an easy, inexpensive way for manpower professionals to get valid job market data?

The answer is no, according to two researchers who carried out a study of want ads for the Manpower Administration. They tell why beginning on page 15.

Another article takes a look at the job market from a different perspective: What it holds for young people who decide to enter the sciences or engineering. This time the answer is much more positive. It appears today that a technical education is a fine starting point for a rewarding career. The rewards are there for those who seek money and a key to the executive suite, as well as for those who are more turned on by the opportunity to grapple with some of the problems that plague society. And though the pursuit of these rewards requires rigorous educational preparation, young people who are willing and able to stay the course are likely to enter a labor market where the demand for scientists and engineers outruns the supply. The reasons behind this upbeat view of *Technical Education and Careers in Industry*—as presented by a du Pont executive—start on page 8.

Ellis Rottman

hicle required. Call 828- pointment. E.O.E.

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HOUSEKEEPER — Exper. individual needed to supervise housekeeping function at motel. Must be familiar with maid operation. Must be reliable & able to supervise people. Apply in person. CLEARY INN, 800 Culmore Ave., College Park, Md.

SALESPERSON, exper., $18.50 eves. selling Top line fashions. Up to $350 sample wardrobe at no cost. Car and phone necess. 494-1830, 494-7676, 333-8024.

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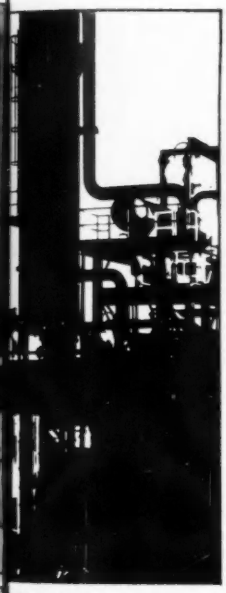

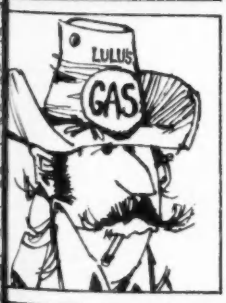

articles

2 **Public Service Jobs as Transitional Employment** James Craft
Test project's subsidized slots start disadvantaged on way to regular payrolls

8 **Technical Education and Careers in Industry** Norman Copeland
Broad opportunities, challenge seen for future engineers, scientists

15 **Want Ads and the Job Market** John Walsh and Miriam Johnson
Listings found wanting as accurate reflection of employment openings

25 **Keeping the Migrant Stream Flowing** Fernando Alegria, Jr.
Cooperative effort by government agencies, worker groups averted gasoline crisis

28 **Training Firefighters Through Apprenticeship** Stephen Brown
Chief views program as way to expand career opportunities for youth

departments

14 **Words & Figures**

23 **News & Notes**

30 **Book Reviews**

32 **Publications**

COVER: Photograph, James Shea, U.S. Department of Labor; design, Richard Mathews, U.S. Department of Labor.

Peter J. Brennan
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Assistant Secretary for Manpower
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Ellis Rottman, *editor*
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Timothy Larkin, *contributing editor*
Richard Mathews, *art director*
Ann Meekins,
associate art director

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Public Service Jobs as Transitional Employment

by James A. Craft

Test Project's Subsidized Slots Start Disadvantaged on Way To Regular Payrolls

In recent years there has been increasing acceptance and use of public service employment in national manpower programing. Several of the programs developed in the middle and late 1960's for welfare recipients, older workers, unemployed youth, and the disadvantaged incorporated public service employment components. The Public Employment Program, arising from the Emergency Employment Act of 1971, was designed to combat unemployment by funneling money to State and local governments to create public service jobs. Most recently, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), which turns over much of the control of manpower programs to these governments, permits local prime sponsors to use as much of their funds on public jobs as they wish.

Along with this growing use of public employment as a manpower tool, policy-makers increasingly have felt that the jobs involved should be "transitional" in nature. Generally, this has meant that the subsidized public job should lead to some regular nonsubsidized employment rather than be an end in itself.

As public service employment assumes an increasingly important role in manpower programing, its effectiveness as a mechanism to promote transitional employment must be evaluated. And, in turn, adequate evaluation requires a better definition and understanding of the meaning of the transition concept. To provide information on public service employment as a manpower tool and transition mechanism, the Manpower Administration funded a 3-year experimental and development project[1] in Vermont. This project predated and was not part of the Public Employment Program (PEP); it was a special experimental effort funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

Project Extended Statewide

The project, which ran from July 1970 through June 1973, used public service jobs to develop the employment potential of unemployed members of low-income families with children. During the project's first year, pilot activities were limited to the urban area of Burlington and the rural community of Morrisville. For the remaining 2 years, the project operated on a statewide basis.

The Vermont Employment Service was designated by the Manpower Administration to implement, administer, and operate the project. Using separate grants from the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, other State agencies such as Social Services, Child Development (day care), and Vocational Rehabilitation provided participants with additional support services as requested by the employment service.

Employment service responsibilities included developing subsidized job opportunities with public and private nonprofit employers, referring participants to these jobs, and providing or obtaining support services to help participants adjust to the work environment. The public service jobs were to be transitional, not permanent, and—ideally—participants who performed satisfactorily for a limited time, generally 6 months, would be absorbed into the employer's regular work force.

Most of the project's approximately 650 participants had multiple employment problems and were thought to have little potential for success in regular manpower programs. Most had poor work histories; virtually all faced one or more employability barriers such as lack of self-confidence, child-care problems, transportation difficulties, poor grooming habits, and physical disabilities. Half of the participants had been unemployed for 35 weeks or more before entering the project. About 55 percent of the participants were women.

Those persons who had some work experience often had been employed in seasonal industries (this was particularly true for men) or in low-paying jobs in secondary labor markets. The median annual earned income of participants' families was slightly over $2,000, and the earned income of more than three-quarters of the families was below the 1972 Federal poverty standard. About two-thirds of the participants had received some type of public assistance payment—usually Aid to

James Craft, associate professor of business administration at the University of Pittsburgh, conducted a research study on the Vermont Experimental and Demonstration Project under a grant from the Manpower Administration.

[1] Persons interested in obtaining the full study of the Vermont project, *Public Service Jobs and Transitional Employment: An Analysis of the Vermont Experimental and Demonstration Project*, should write the Manpower Administration, Division of Research and Utilization, Room 9112, 601 D St., NW., Washington, D. C. 20213.

Families with Dependent Children (AFDC)—in the period immediately preceding entry into the project. Women participants tended to have been unemployed and on welfare longer than men.

Each participant was assigned to an employability development team made up of a counselor, a manpower specialist, and a coach. The counselor's role was to review and evaluate the participant's work potential, help the participant establish realistic vocational goals, and provide or obtain some support services. The manpower specialist was responsible for developing jobs with public service employers. The coach's primary duties were to help the participant deal with day-to-day employment and personal difficulties and to arrange for the delivery of services. The coach, for example, might intervene directly with the employer to resolve a job-related problem.

The Vermont Employment Service was faced with a tremendous task in developing satisfactory public service jobs with transitional potential. The manpower specialists, who had limited experience in developing public service jobs, were asked to line up full-time positions (a minimum of 35 hours a week) that paid at least $2 per hour. Also, they were urged to encourage employers to contribute something to the total cost of employing project participants so that job subsidies would be less than 100 percent. This would free some project funds for additional slots, and it was felt that employers who paid part of the costs might be more inclined to take an interest in the trainee's job performance and progress.

Generally, wage and hour goals for the jobs were achieved, especially as the project matured and the manpower specialists developed more extensive knowledge of the labor market. However, due in part to budget constraints and financial retrenchment in State government, cost contributions from employers were obtained for only about half the jobs. Employer contributions usually amounted to no more than 10 percent of costs.

Job developers pointed out that the project gave employers an opportunity to get additional workers at little or no expense and to help "hard-core" unemployed and welfare recipients become self-sustaining members of society. Developers stressed that jobs should match, as nearly as possible, regular jobs with the employer in wages, hours, and conditions of work, and that the project sought to have project participants who performed satisfactorily retained on the payroll as regular workers after the completion of their project employment. In the later stages of the project, retention of satisfactory participants became a condition for development of subsidized slots with employers.

'Pool' Concept Tried First

Early in the project, efforts were made to develop a large "pool" of job slots among a few agencies so positions would be available for participants as they came into the project. There were problems with this approach, however, because some employers became dissatisfied over delays in filling negotiated slots, project money was tied up in unused slots, and some slots did not meet the employability development needs of participants entering the project. During the last 2 years of the project, jobs were developed individually for particular participants with only a few slots per employer.

While the nature of the slots varied, typical jobs included family planning worker, social caseworker aide, general office clerk, nursery school attendant, janitor, agricultural extension service aide, and the like. Most jobs were in educational institutions, State government offices, State hospitals, and private nonprofit organizations.

To evaluate the effectiveness of the project, it was necessary to measure the extent of transition among participants from subsidized public service employment to nonsubsidized jobs. Unfortunately, no precise formulation or definition of "transitional employment" had been developed previously. Thus, it was necessary to develop a meaningful concept of the term and to define it operationally for measurement purposes.

As a concept, transition from public service employment can best be represented and understood as a process or a flow of activity over time. The transitional period begins when the participant is placed in a subsidized job. The objective of such a placement for a disadvantaged person is to provide continuous work experience in a job with satisfactory wages in the primary labor market so the individual can develop the habits, attitudes, and skills to hold a full-time job. The pay received by participants, regardless of whether they are disadvantaged, provides income until they are able to move into nonsubsidized positions. Project employers benefit from the arrangement by getting additional workers whose pay is at least partially subsidized.

A critical point in the transition process occurs when the job subsidy is exhausted or the employer feels that the participant is ready to move into a nonsubsidized job. The period of transition continues as the worker moves directly into such a job, either with the public service employer or with some

After almost a year of unemployment following a back injury, Everett Boyce was placed by the Vermont Public Service Employment Experimental and Demonstration Project as a vocational rehabilitation aide and received 15 months of on-the-job training. He now earns about $7,500 a year as a rural manpower aide for the Vermont Department of Employment Security, a job he has held since leaving the project more than 2 years ago.

The College of St. Joseph the Provider moved Diane Wallet into a regular job as a receptionist-secretary after 9 months of on-the-job training in the same position under the Vermont project. Mrs. Wallet had been unemployed for 2 years before being placed by the project.

As an income maintenance specialist with the Vermont Department of Social Welfare, Robert New makes eligibility determinations and computes financial assistance packages for welfare recipients. He was hired for this $7,500-a-year job after 14 months in the Vermont project as an employment service aide for the Vermont Department of Employment Security.

other employer. An effective transition at this juncture is one in which the pay for the nonsubsidized job is comparable to the pay for the public service position the worker vacates. Finally, since the ultimate objective of transitional public service employment is to lead to long-term employment, the transitional process cannot be considered complete and effective unless the worker retains an unsubsidized job for a reasonable period of time.

Using this flow concept, transition can be viewed as a process involving three levels. A person placed in a nonsubsidized job immediately (meaning within 14 days to allow for delays caused by hiring procedures) can be classified as having transitioned at Level 1. If the pay on this job is equal to or better than the public service employment wage, the worker can be said to have transitioned at Level 2. And, in addition, a worker meeting the first two criteria who is still in a nonsubsidized job 90 days after transition can be considered to have transitioned at Level 3.

Each "level" represents the achievement of public service employment objectives. Dividing the transition process into successively higher levels provides a measure of how effective a public service employment project is at achieving the full range of its goals.

This concept of transition was used to assess the Vermont project. At the time of the analysis, 484 of the 500 participants reviewed had completed or

Moving from a subsidized public service employment slot to a regular payroll did not involve a change of employer or duties for Robert Allen. He simply was hired for a regular position by the Vermont State Hospital in Waterbury, where he had worked for 18 months as a psychiatric aide under the Vermont project. He soon will become a psychiatric technician.

terminated their public service employment work experience. Of this group, 202 or 42 percent obtained full-time nonsubsidized jobs within 14 days of completion and were considered to have transitioned at Level 1. About three-fourths of these moved into regular jobs with their public service employers, while the remainder took jobs with other employers.

Of the 202 who got jobs, 166 (representing 35 percent of all clients after statistical adjustments for missing data) received wages at least equal to their public service employment pay. Participants who moved into a regular job with their public service employers were more likely to maintain or increase their salary level than were those who took nonsubsidized jobs with other employers.

Some 137 project participants (representing 30 percent of all clients after statistical adjustment for missing data) reached a Level 3 transition, meaning they were placed immediately at a wage comparable to their public service employment pay and were still employed 90 days later. Workers hired by their public service employers were much more likely to reach a Level 3 transition than those placed elsewhere. An estimated 84 percent of those placed with their public service employers reached Level 3 transitions compared with 51 percent of those placed with other employers. This disparity probably reflects the fact that participants hired by their public service employers had developed a familiarity with their jobs and retained their public service employment wages, while participants placed with another employer were more likely to find their new positions unsatisfactory and to quit before 90 days.

Transition Rates Analyzed

An analysis of the characteristics of men participants showed that those with better work histories before enrolling in the project tended to be more successful in obtaining immediate post-project placements. Among women, those with fewer handicaps and from families with higher earned incomes tended to be more successful in making a transition.

In terms of job characteristics, men and women with public service employment in white-collar jobs had very good transition rates. Men in service jobs had satisfactory transition rates, but those assigned to construction work did not. Women in service jobs had poor transition rates. Both men and women tended to transition well from jobs provided by State and city governments and social service agencies. On the other hand, both had low transition rates from jobs with educational employers, apparently due to the type of jobs provided by these employers.

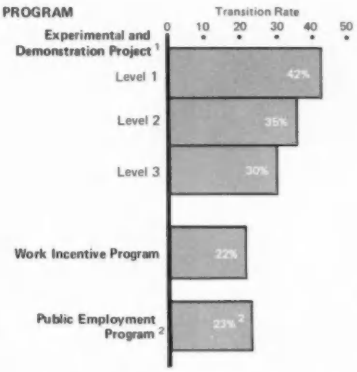
Finally, transition prospects were good for men placed with hospital, health, and child-care employers but poor for those with nonprofit organizations. Women had the opposite experience.

Of the men who were placed immediately in nonsubsidized jobs, about 85 percent were still employed 6 months later. Of those who did not make an immediate transition to nonsubsidized employment, about 28 percent had jobs 6 months after leaving the project. Among women, about 78 percent of those who were placed immediately after their project employment ended had jobs 6 months later, compared with 21 percent of those who did not get an unsubsidized job right away.

Pay scales for men participants who were employed 6 months after leaving the project were about the same regardless of whether they had made an immediate transition or found an unsubsidized job after some delay. Among women who were working 6 months later, however, wages were considerably higher for those who had made an immediate transition than for those who had not. Participants who made an immediate transition and were employed 6 months later generally expressed satisfaction with their jobs.

The project was successful in getting some participants off welfare. Upon entering the project, 54 percent of the participants were on welfare. Six months after leaving the project, about 37 percent were getting welfare payments. For the most part, the reduction in welfare dependency came among participants who made an immediate transition to unsubsidized jobs. Of those still receiving welfare after leaving the project, most had been on welfare before and did not transition. An analysis of the data indicated that the total welfare outlay for project participants had been reduced by about one-third.

Transitions From Vermont Public Service Employment Programs--Fiscal Year 1972



Source: WIN and PEP data from the Vermont Department of Employment Security.

Experimental and demonstration project data from *Public Service Jobs and Transitional Employment: An Analysis of the Vermont Experimental and Demonstration Project.*

1 Some of the participants in the Vermont Experimental and Demonstration Project included in this data transitioned shortly before or after fiscal year 1972.

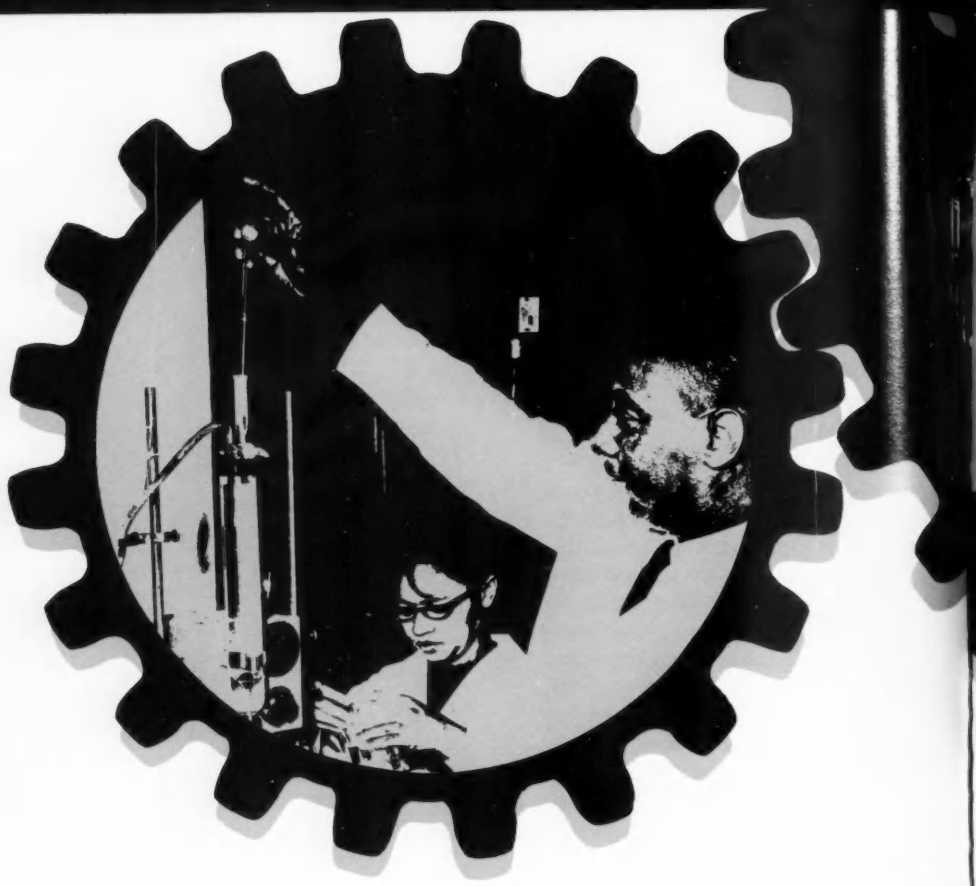
2 PEP transition rates increased substantially after fiscal year 1972.

To put the results of the Vermont Experimental and Demonstration Project in perspective, its transition rates for the 484 participants were compared with the fiscal year 1972 transition rates from other Vermont programs with public service employment components. Rates for all three possible levels of transition for the experimental and demonstration project were compared with the single rate available for the other progams, although the Level 1 rate offers the best comparison with transition rates for the other programs. This is because the transition rates for the other programs reflect only the percentage of participants who had a job upon their termination, regardless of pay of the nonsubsidized job or how long they stayed in it.

The transition rate at Level 1 for the experimental and demonstration project exceeds those from other Vermont public service employment programs (see chart). Even at Levels 2 and 3 of transition, the rates for the experimental and demonstration project compare favorably with rates for the other programs. These results are particularly significant because—unlike many other public employment programs—all participants in the experimental and demonstration project were low-income unemployed people with substantial employability problems.

The results of the Vermont project indicate that jobs can be developed with public service employers and that, when supplemented with support services, they can be an effective means of moving disadvantaged people into nonsubsidized full-time employment. The findings suggest that public service employment programs for the disadvantaged should focus on those people with the best employment records and should be used as one tool in a set of programing alternatives that include other established manpower training techniques.

Finally, the Vermont project demonstrates the importance of a precise formulation and definition of the concept of transition. As noted earlier, there is currently a strong policy emphasis that public service employment programs be transitional, yet the meaning of transitional employment has not been made clear. This makes it very hard to determine if transition has occurred in a program and to compare the effectiveness of various programs. The concept of transition and its measurement developed in the Vermont project is an important contribution to the maturation of public employment programing. □



Technical Education and Careers in Industry

by Norman A. Copeland

Broad Opportunities, Challenge Seen for Future Engineers, Scientists

• Is a highly technical education still valid as a preparation for a financially and professionally rewarding career?

• Does the graduate who goes in for engineering or the physical sciences have a good chance to make it to the top? What are his chances compared, say, with those of some equally brilliant fellow who opted for finance, or law, or who simply set his goal at marrying the boss's daughter?

• How can young corporate engineers or scientists already on the scene best train themselves for top management? Should they moonlight at the nearest university, studying law? Or should they take a leave of absence and go for a master's degree in business administration from Harvard? Should they ask for an early transfer to sales or manufacturing? Should they cultivate outside business contacts? Join the right country club?

• Is a highly technical education a good route to go for those who want to use their own special abilities to grapple with the needs of society today?

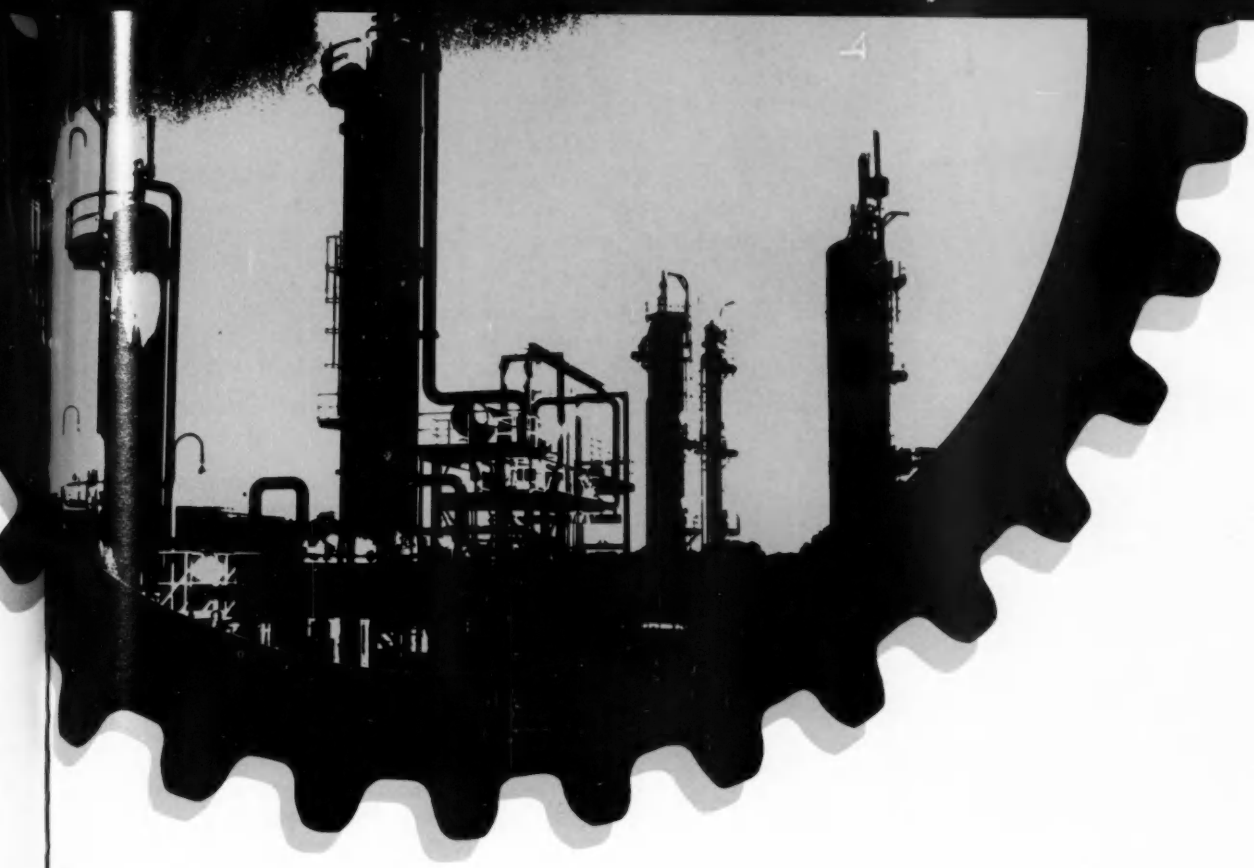
These questions, or similar ones, are often asked by recent graduates in engineering and science. And they are on the minds of many young people who are contemplating such careers as well.

The answers to these questions are important not only to the individuals who are asking them, but to the Nation as a whole. For in a society where technology has reached such critical dimensions, questions about who pursues a career in engineering or science, why they do so, and how they fare are matters that can have an impact on virtually everyone.

There are brief answers to these questions, and some longer ones. First, the brief ones:

Yes, an engineering or scientific education does provide as good a starting gate to the good life as it ever did. Yes, young engineers or scientists have as good a shot at the executive suite as those who majored in corporate finance, or went directly on to law school. No, there is no one type of continuing education that is much better than any other for the practicing engineer or scientist who wants to convert to administrative duties in the quest for senior management positions.

Norman A. Copeland is senior vice president of E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Company. This article is adapted from a speech he made before the MIT Club of Delaware Valley.



And yes, a technical education is good preparation for young people who want to leave the world better than they found it. But whether they are able to do so depends on how they cope with some of the nontechnical complexities of society today.

To answer these questions so briefly, however, is to ignore the subtleties that make them worth asking. So let us examine them in some detail, beginning with the first question; namely, is the highly technical education still a good preparation for earning a comfortable living?

People who keep tab on employment trends tend to agree that the present uncertainty about job security among technical graduates has been accentuated by two recent events. One was the wholesale dislocation among aerospace scientists and engineers that resulted from the rapid winddown of the Nation's race for space supremacy. As a Nation we held parades for the returning moon voyagers, but we rather abruptly dismantled the extraordinary technical teams assembled to make the moon trips possible.

This admittedly painful experience was compounded by an economic downturn at the end of the recent decade. Most industrial corporations found it necessary to tighten their belts to bring costs into line. In doing so, many postponed capital expenditures, adopted moratoriums on hiring new personnel, and in some cases, reduced their ranks of current employees. Technically trained candidates and employees were not the only ones caught in this bind, but they suffered shocks for which they were probably ill-prepared. The shocks in turn produced a credibility gap which both employers and educators are finding very difficult to close.

The consequences of these measures, even though they seemed to be the most prudent and equitable available at the time, are still with us. Du Pont, like many other firms, is still working to overcome the losses from that temporary retrenchment. We are trying this year, for example, to recruit about 20 percent more engineers than our projected average annual needs. Experience shows, however, that the bubbles in the pipeline continue to plague us for years to come. Ten years from now, for example, we will have to contend with shortfalls in experience among potential managers at third and fourth levels of supervision.

U.S. industry, moreover, is finding that stepped-up hiring will not make up for the other consequences of the period of retrenchment. Prospective engineering students, rightly or wrongly, read a bleak message into the hiring slump. Enrollments fell off and continue lower than needed to meet projected demand for scientists and engineers. The National Commission on Technology and the National Science Foundation together show 1975 needs of about 2.3 million technically trained graduates, up 18 percent over the 1.9 million employed in 1970. At the moment, these additional people just aren't in the pipeline. (Most of this gap is represented, to be sure, by engineers. With the deceleration of federally sponsored research, supply and demand for scientists is now roughly in equilibrium.)

As we look ahead even further, demands for 1980 are projected at 2.7 million engineers and scientists, an increase of 36 percent over 1970. Unless clear inducements are devised to increase engineering enrollments, the supply-demand gap is likely to become

Technical Education

'Not only does the demand for engineers and scientists promise to outrun the supply, but more and more employers are committed to actively seeking blacks and other minorities and women to fill these jobs.'

increasingly critical. It is now becoming clear that the success of the pill is going to shrink the total population in our school systems, but worldwide demands for technological innovations are not likely to shrink at all.

Another reason for the shortfall seems to be the increasing reluctance of the brightest of American youth to take on the rigors of the engineering curriculum. Perhaps parental permissiveness coupled with the rise in affluence has caused students to choose the less demanding academic programs.

If this turns out to be true, we may be inviting the historic pattern of decay which overcomes those who rest upon their laurels. It can cost us our leadership in technology to such countries as Japan and Germany where the best students are still highly motivated to take on demanding curricula in science and engineering.

The deans of our graduate schools of engineering report growing numbers of unfilled vacancies. They also report that they could easily fill these places with candidates from foreign universities.

Perhaps there are simply fewer opportunities abroad. But there is certainly a lesson for American students in this: Undergraduates in other countries are more aware of the worldwide need for technical people and are less likely to be put off by occasional setbacks and dips in the economic cycle. This message is especially important and timely for minority youth and young women—two groups who are woefully underrepresented in the Nation's technological community. Not only does the demand for engineers and scientists promise to outrun the supply, but more and more employers are committed to actively seeking blacks and other minorities and women to fill these jobs.

The jobs, then, are there—and are likely to be for the foreseeable future. That conclusion brings the second question to the fore: Is the technical education that is necessary to prepare a young person for these jobs also good preparation for opportunities in top management? There are, of course, many measures of success other than arriving at a post of top administrative responsibility, presumably with high-tax-bracket income, the opportunity to set corporate goals, and so on. Another measure might be preeminence in some field of engineering practice or scientific inquiry. This, too, can be rewarding, both financially and intellectually.

The young technical graduate whose ambitions are focused on top management, however, need not be concerned about his educational background. The kind of hard work required to achieve a technical degree is also a requirement for advancement in a business organization. Other qualities required to succeed in engineering and science also come to mind: Logical thinking, self-discipline, the ability to organize resources, a knack for problem solving, the experiences of setting up and meeting timetables, the ability to mesh one's

own part of a project into very complex teamwork arrangements—all these are excellent credentials for management assignments.

An ultimate requirement for working at top management levels is a thorough knowledge of the business. Especially in technically based companies, the engineer is as likely as anyone else to have opportunities for acquiring this kind of know-how. Of course this advantage disappears in a bank or insurance company, but then few engineers or scientists go to work for banks and insurance companies anyway.

The track record for the technically trained aspirant is pretty good. It has been estimated that about 40 percent of all chief executive officers in U.S. industrial corporations have an engineering background. The efficacy of technical training was pointed up in a recent study made at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology's Center for Policy Alternatives. This study shows that by midcareer, if not earlier, at least half of U.S. engineers are devoting more of their time to management than to engineering.

In the final analysis, the young engineer or scientist seeking to move up in management faces the same situation as the lawyer, or financial specialist, or the graduate in any other discipline. A top executive, regardless of background, has to demonstrate a capability that transcends any one specialty.

Which leads to the third question: What special efforts should ambitious young employees make to prepare themselves for higher responsibility?

There is no one answer to that. Certainly some technically trained people have taken time out to study law or corporate finance and made it pay off. Others have gone on to pursue advanced degrees in their own technical fields, and made the extra knowledge pay off that way.

The critical thing is for the individual to learn everything possible about his or her own sphere of activity, and to demonstrate the ability to get any job done with excellence. In modern corporate practice, management will reward that excellence by seeing to it that the capable young employee gets varied experience.

The apex of any pyramid is very small; obviously, the higher up one goes, the more selective the process becomes. Generally speaking, the range of decisions required of senior management cuts across a broad spectrum of knowledge and judgment. Qualifications grow out of experience and education that come well after the academic years of preparation. All things considered, the broader an individual's intellectual interest and curiosity, the better the chances for success.

Skills other than the technical definitely need to be worked on. The ability to communicate clearly, both to superiors and to employees, is one. Another is the skill to get optimum use of the best abilities of one's employees and them to overcome or minimize their limi-

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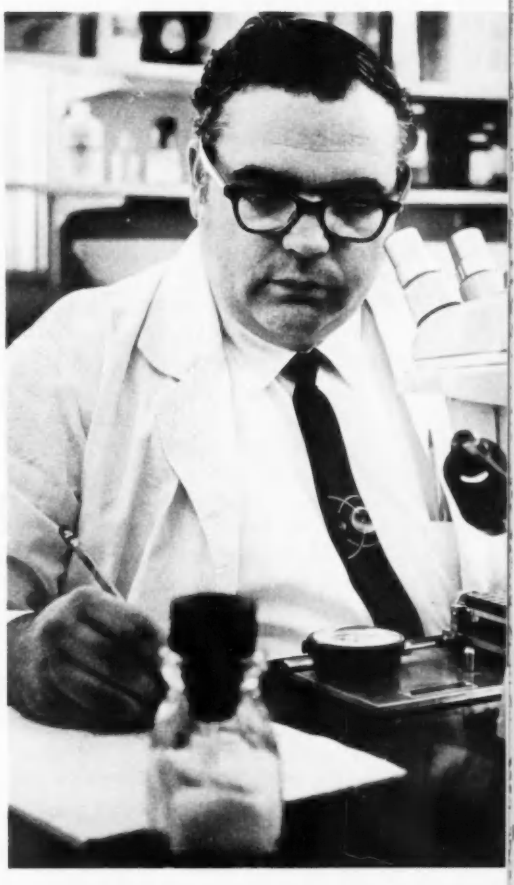


tations. One of the most common mistakes in budding young executives is the unwillingness to delegate.

The problem of motivation is one of the pivotal criteria in making any working unit achieve its goals. About 20 years ago, there was a great fad in studying human relations. It didn't turn out to be a panacea, but it did help a whole generation of managers understand that productivity is related in part to the value systems of the people who work for them. And those value systems do change.

Younger people have come forward with some significant "value" changes in the past 5 years, and these changes are probably behind the last question posed at the outset of this article: Does an education in science or engineering provide an opportunity to tackle the really significant problems of society today? There are several reasons behind this concern about "relevance," to use one of the key words in the value systems of youth today.

In every walk of life, young people have so many options available that the fear of making the wrong choice sometimes appears overwhelming. For the person who really cares about the problems that besiege us, there is a compulsion to put one's skill and energy where it really counts—in finding the cure for intractable disease, the methodology for removing pollution, the energy source that can eradicate poverty, and so on.

There is also a feeling that science and technology have been weighed in the balance and found wanting; that society no longer accords the honor and respect to technical excellence that it once did.

Then, too, there is the suspicion that in industry commercial interests often are at odds with the long-term needs of society. Profit maximization, it is argued, stresses economic growth in the face of energy shortages and a cannibalization of resources by industrial nations, calls for delays in pollution control progress, and places inordinate emphasis on consumer goods versus public facilities—such as parks, hospitals, schools, and cultural centers.

It is true that the number of options today has multiplied enormously. This is one of the fallouts of comparative affluence, and young people are sometimes caught in the dilemma of the donkey in Aesop's fable. Tethered at an equal distance between two equal mounds of hay, he starved to death because he couldn't make up his mind which way to go.

Despite the options and the difficulty in making a choice, there is every reason to believe that the young, technically trained person who brings skill, dedication, energy, and integrity to any good challenging job will find that opportunities will continue to open up steadily for the best contributions the individual can make.

The elusive cure for cancer, when it comes, is likely to be the sum of the

'. . .the cure for intractable disease, the methodology for removing pollution, the energy source that can eradicate poverty. . .will require the cooperative efforts of thousands of engineers and scientists. . .'

contributions of tens of thousands of specialists, ranging from the microbiologist who offers a better way to track the progress of a virus to the engineer who finds a better way to focus the pathway of a radioactive particle. The energy crisis, if it gets solved, will require the cooperative efforts of thousands of engineers and scientists who keep squeezing mill costs of a wide variety of refinement processes. Disposition of domestic and individual wastes likewise will require incremental gains in hundreds of new processes; certainly, they are not likely to be achieved by any single master stroke.

As for the diminished honor and respect paid the scientist and engineer, time has shown that to be largely a myth. Recent surveys show that technology and the people who practice it are considered as important as they ever were among the informed members of the world community. If there has been any falloff in veneration, it is in the blind faith of the general public. And I believe this loss of respect ties in with the general loss of respect we have recently witnessed for a wide range of institutions in our society.

What we do have is a growing understanding among scientists and engineers as well as among lay persons that technological skills do not make us omniscient in every area of mental endeavor. This too is a good thing, and the lesson is not limited to scientists and engineers. It applies as well to attorneys and doctors and economists, to name a few. Professional people of all kinds easily fall victim to a kind of arrogance which is harmful in today's complex society.

It is going to take the very best collaboration of all our professions to alleviate the world's problems. The conflict of interest many young people envision between the enterprise system and building a world where all people can live in freedom and dignity is what the philosophers used to call a false dichotomy. Every responsible business leader knows that long-term business health requires the solution of a long list of social ills. What we lack at the moment is the ability—in the economists' language—to manage the best tradeoffs among scarce resources so that we can provide better jobs, better health care, and better tools for living and, at the same time, wipe out illiteracy, poverty, unemployment, foul air, and dirty water.

We also are plagued by the general difficulty experienced in democratic societies of formulating cohesive national policies to cope with national problems like pollution and energy before they reach the crisis stage. Sometimes we over-react and it takes a few pendulum swings before we center on rational solutions. Eventually, though, we do end up with reasonably viable, pragmatic programs—programs that in the years ahead will tax every engineer and scientist to the limit—because technology is certainly going to have to supply many of the answers. □

Words & Figures

Focusing on Youth

Youth unemployment is one of the Nation's most persistent labor market problems. The unemployment rate for young people is about three times the rate for all workers. Most unemployed youth—about 70 percent—are new entrants or reentrants to the labor market; few of them are unemployed because of layoffs. Lack of knowledge of the labor market and inadequate preparation for the world of work are two of the major causes of youth unemployment.

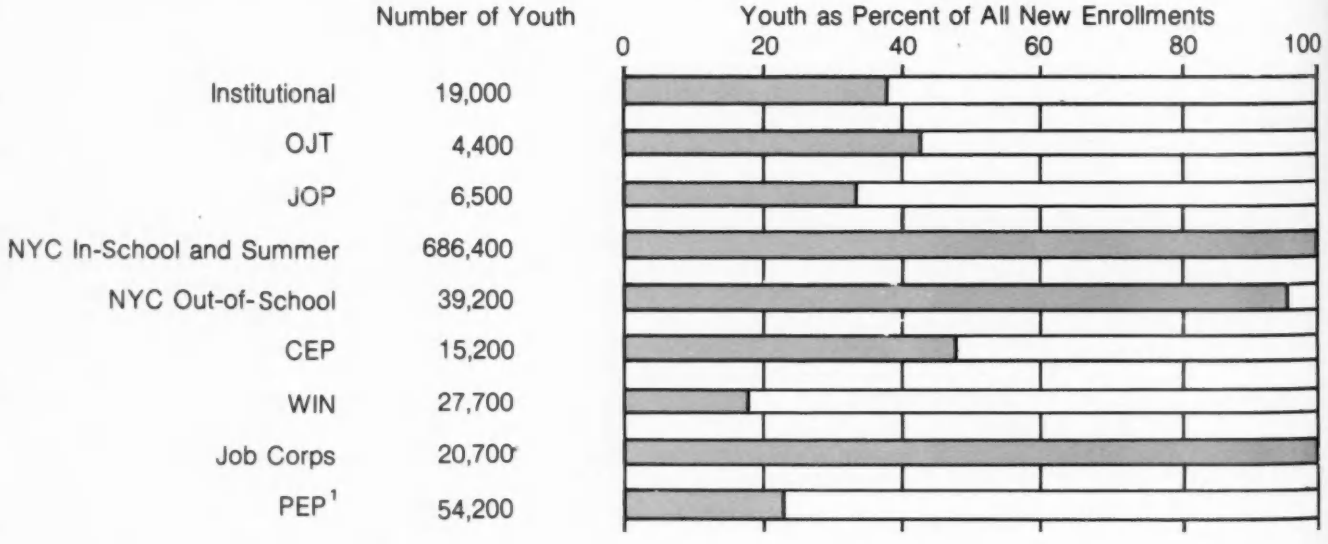
Many of the efforts of manpower agencies and programs are concentrated on youth. The employment service provides counseling, testing, and referral to jobs and training. Work and training programs offer the opportunity to learn needed occupational skills and behavioral patterns.

Between July 1973 and May 1974, more than 3 million of the almost 10 million people who applied for work at local employment service offices for the first time were under 22 years old. And while youth comprised 32 percent of all new applicants, they accounted for 40 percent of all people placed in jobs.

Among work and training programs, the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) had by far the biggest enrollment of people under 22. All but a handful of the more than 727,000 people who enrolled in the NYC In-School, Summer, and Out-of-School Programs during the first half of fiscal year 1974 were under 22. Job Corps, another youth program, had 20,700 new participants, all of them under 22.

In terms of total number of young people, the Public Employment Program (PEP), with 54,200, ranked second among all work and training efforts. Youth also accounted for a substantial number of new participants enrolled between July and December 1973 in the Work Incentive (WIN) Program, Manpower Development and Training Act institutional (classroom) projects, national on-the-job training (OJT) contracts, State-administered on-the-job training projects (the JOP or Jobs Optional Program), and the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP).

Enrollment of Youth in Manpower Programs – July Through December 1973



[1] Data are for regular PEP enrollees. There also were 210,700 youth in the PEP summer program.

Want Ads and the Job Market

by John Walsh and Miriam Johnson

Listings Found Wanting as Accurate Reflection of Employment Openings

When workers in one of our largest States were laid off as a result of the energy crisis, the Governor directed the State employment service to come to their aid by locating 30,000 job openings through a statewide search of want ads.

This faith in the scope of jobs listed in classified ads is not new. Initially, federally sponsored manpower programs rested on the assumption that structural imbalances in the labor market were a major cause of unemployment. According to this theory, automation and technological change were lowering demands for unskilled workers, displacing workers with obsolete skills, and increasing demands for skilled workers in new occupations—problems that seemed to call for massive training and retraining programs to build new skills. Support for these views was provided by numerous newspaper help wanted ads for a wide array of jobs that did not exist 5 years earlier.

Economists, labor market analysts, and manpower planners continue to be fascinated by classified ads. On the face of it, the ads seem to offer a great body of current, convenient, usable data. Manpower planners, for example, have been known to use information on help wanted pages to justify occupa-

John Walsh and Miriam Johnson conducted the research on which this article is based.

Want Ads

'The fact is that classified ads present jobseekers with an enigmatic maze.'

tional training under the requirement of the then extant Manpower Development and Training Act that the training be "of a type for which there appears to be a reasonable expectation of employment."

But an assumption that want ads provide an accurate picture of local job markets has never been tested adequately. The Conference Board, a business research organization, uses an index of want ad volume as an economic indicator and has shown that the ads are directly related to the level of general business activity. But, with the exception of this index—which measures ad linage rather than content—studies of want ads have been small and scattered. Basic questions of interest to those who would like to use want ads in their work have not been answered. Do want ads describe openings in all, or only part, of a local job market? How successful are want ads in matching workers with jobs? What do the ads reveal about occupational trends, job locations, wages, and employer requirements?

"Want ads must be good for somebody," an unemployed worker recently commented when he sought work through his local employment service. "But I go through the ads every time I need a job, and I've never been able to get one that way. Besides, I have to ask myself—'Am I a boy, young man, or driver?' Then there are all those clerk jobs advertised. Some kinds of clerks make good money, but what kinds were the ads in today's paper looking for?"

The fact is that classified ads present jobseekers with an enigmatic maze. This maze is made up of a hodgepodge of solicitations from local employers, private employment agencies, and large firms engaged in national, State, and area recruitment. The amount of job information varies greatly from ad to ad. Often, occupational designations are uninformative, inaccurate, and glamorized. In many cases, ads are written to attract the largest number of applicants rather than to match workers with jobs. Sometimes, the ads appear to describe jobs but are, in fact, advertising business opportunities that are dubious at best.

Researchers sought to work their way through this maze in a recent study for the Manpower Administration of classified help wanted ads. The study,[1] made by the Olympus Research Corporation (ORC), involved in-depth analyses of the help wanted sections of selected Sunday editions of two newspapers, the San Francisco CHRONICLE-EXAMINER and the Salt Lake City TRIBUNE.

Labor Markets Differ

The objectives of the study were to find out how well want ads serve employers and jobseekers and whether it is possible to extract from the ads any significant job market information, such as prevailing wages for various occupations, changes in the skill needs of industry, and trends in educational requirements and other conditions of employment. Although inconclusive in some respects, the study findings may help local manpower planners to glean some useful information from newspaper classified sections while alerting them to the danger of basing major decisions on information from this source.

The two cities chosen for the study have substantial labor market differences. Over 63 percent of the jobs in San Francisco are in professional, clerical, and operative categories. In Salt Lake City, nearly 64 percent are in sales, craft, and service categories. San Francisco is the hub of a large metropolitan area; Salt Lake is the major city of a relatively small, growing metropolis. San Francisco is highly unionized, while Salt Lake City is not. San Francisco has a large minority population;

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ASSISTANT ACCOUNTS PAYABLE SUPERVISOR
Experienced in accounts payable and supervision necessary. Apply in per-
CARPENTER/FOR
CARPENTERS
Apply job site
Doug Lewis.
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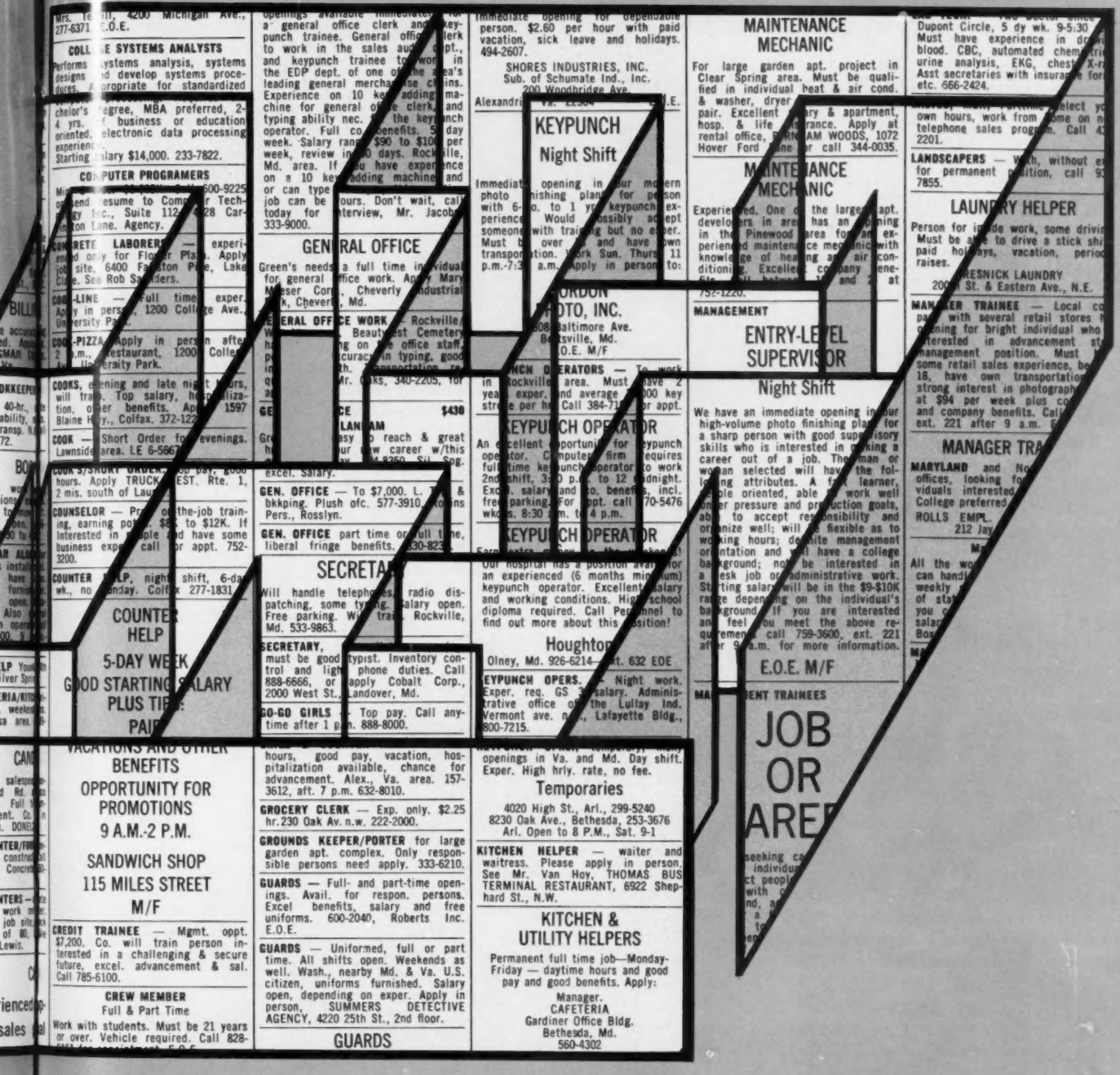
ery sales

[1] For information about obtaining a copy of the full research report, entitled *A Study to Test the Feasibility of Determining Whether Classified Ads in Daily Newspapers Are an Accurate Reflection of Local Labor Markets and of Significant Value to Employers and Jobseekers*, write to the Division of Research and Development Utilization, Office of Research and Development, Manpower Administration, Room 9112, 601 D St. NW., Washington, D.C. 20213.



few minorities live in Salt Lake City. At the time of the ORC study, San Francisco had 212 private employment agencies, compared with 33 for Salt Lake.

Sunday editions of newspapers in these cities were chosen for analysis because they have the highest volume of jobs advertised during the week. Moreover, it seems likely that more jobseekers scan Sunday papers than weekday editions. The employers who advertised on Sundays did not seem to be significantly different from those who ran ads in the daily papers, except that in San Francisco a higher proportion of the Sunday ads came from national advertisers.

The study covered the years 1968 through 1972, but did not include all Sunday editions in those years. Some of the data were compiled on a monthly basis, other data on a quarterly basis. In one phase of the study, every piece of job information in selected editions of both papers was extracted and coded, including jobs listed by private agencies. Ads were counted and columns measured. Then, the results were integrated with findings from three surveys—a random sample of all employers to determine the extent of their want ad use, a survey of employers who placed ads to learn whether their ads resulted in hires, and a survey of jobseekers in the two cities.

Overall, want ads do not yield

'The researchers also tried to find out whether want ads telegraph any signals about emerging occupations.'

enough data about local job markets to justify extensive—and costly—analyses of the ads by local manpower planners, the researchers concluded.

The amount of information in classified ads differs greatly by type of ad, ORC found. For example, the researchers could glean some job market data from ads run by employers, but almost none except wage rates for ads run by private employment agencies. In 86 percent of the agency listings, for example, it was not possible to identify the employer's type of business. Also, agency ads did not provide wide coverage of the occupational spectrum: 83 percent were for white-collar occupations and only 7.7 percent were for blue-collar and service workers.

Agencies List Best Jobs

In addition, a great many private agency want ads represent multiple listings of the same job because employers often let more than one agency advertise their vacancies, the researchers learned. Agency advertising also lists only a small number of the total job orders the agencies have on file. Generally, these are the best jobs among many that the agencies have in each advertised occupation. Advertising them shows the agencies off to best advantage and tends to attract the largest number of jobseekers. If one high quality listing attracts 50 well qualified applicants, for example, private agencies will try to place one person in this job and the other 49 in less attractive jobs that they have available.

Employer ads, too, have some serious informational limitations, the study found. In both Salt Lake City and San Francisco, industry information was missing in about a third of these ads, and the employer was not identified in more than half of them. Employer ads also were weak in wage information—only about a quarter stated the wages. In interviews, ORC learned that many employers do not like to cite wages for fear of discouraging jobseekers, and they often like to negotiate pay with qualified applicants.

One of the many problems the researchers met was determining the geographic location of the jobs advertised in classified pages. It was impossible to determine the location of 61 percent of the jobs listed in the San Francisco paper and 30 percent of those in Salt Lake. The problem was greatest in ads run by private agencies and in bordered ads—those run by advertising agencies for nationwide, statewide, and areawide recruitment. Location seldom was given in bordered ads, and in only about 10 percent of the private employment agency listings.

Ads placed by employers usually contained enough information to allow the jobseeker to determine the location of the job, but in many cases these jobs were not in the city. This creates problems for anyone who would like to use want ads as a handy reference guide to local job opportunities. In San Francisco, nearly half of the jobs listed by employers were outside the city, and 15 percent were outside the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA). Corresponding figures for Salt Lake City were 37 percent and 10 percent.

Ads run by local employers may take up only a small part of the space used for classified want ads, the researchers found. In San Francisco, for example, employer ads accounted for only a third of the want ad space; the rest was made up of employment agency or bordered ads.

Newspaper policies toward advertisers affect the proportion of employers' ads to agency ads, ORC found. The San Francisco CHRONICLE-EXAMINER requires all employment agency ads to appear in a special section. These ads tend to be large, and they consume more than a third of all classified ad space. Until a few years ago, the Salt Lake City TRIBUNE had a similar policy. That paper as well as many others in the country now permits agencies to advertise individual jobs in the regular sections of its help wanted columns along with employer placed ads—and often they look exactly the same. In the first year after the policy change, the number of agency ads skyrocketed, but the space they took up was cut nearly in half.

Vacancy Data Inadequate

To test the degree to which help wanted ads reflect job market activities, ORC ran comparisons of the ads with some standard indicators of the way the wind is blowing in the job market. In theory, vacancy rates based on surveys of employers' open jobs would offer the best gauge of occupational trends in the job market against which to measure want ad information. But, in practice, vacancy data proved to be far too limited. In San Francisco, only a few employers are surveyed as part of a national sample, and in Salt Lake vacancy statistics exist only for the manufacturing and mining industries.

As a proxy, ORC used the unemployment rate. Researchers found that there was a high correlation over a 5-year period between this rate and the number of ads, inches, and jobs listed in want ads placed by employers. In other words, as the unemployment rate went up, employers' ads went down. Employment agencies, however, continue to advertise in periods of high

unemployment, but purchase less space.

The researchers also tried to find out whether want ads telegraph any signals about emerging occupations. This was unproductive. Ads lack the detailed information needed to determine whether an advertised job is a variety of an existing occupation or a new and different occupation. An attempt to determine growing occupations through the ads was unsuccessful as well. Job openings occur unevenly and not in direct proportion to total changes in employment in any occupation. Furthermore, classified pages tend to concentrate on certain types of jobs. In San Francisco and Salt Lake, for example, researchers found that sales jobs are overrepresented in the want ads, and government and blue-collar jobs are underrepresented.

Next, the ORC researchers compared occupational fluctuations in the CHRONICLE-EXAMINER's help wanted ads from 1968 to 1972 with the occupational distribution of new unemployment insurance claims in San Francisco and its SMSA for the same period. This was a further test of the degree to which want ads reflect local job market activities. The question was: Would the ads show the effect of economic conditions—as shown by the claims—on various occupations?

The researchers found that for all

'The ads do not offer adequate, accurate, or easily obtained information that would make it possible for jobseekers to decide whether they are suited to a job, or want it.'

worker groups except professional and technical/managerial the want ads showed a high correlation with claims. As claims in various occupations went up, the volume of want ads for those occupations went down.

But the want ads failed in any significant way to precede the claims and thus to serve as an early warning system on occupational trends. Given the cost of want ad studies and the fact that ad content is limited by deficient information and an industrial and occupational imbalance in the jobs advertised, the ORC researchers concluded that information already available, such as unemployment insurance claims, has more to offer the manpower planner than do the classified pages.

Employer Use Surveyed

Despite their many serious limitations as a source of job market information, want ads surely must perform a valuable service to employers. Otherwise, why would they pay to advertise? But how heavily do various employers use want ads? And do the want ads serve them well? To get answers to these questions, ORC did two employer surveys. One sampled all employers in the two cities, and the other sampled only those who advertised job openings in selected editions of the TRIBUNE and the CHRONICLE-EXAMINER.

In 1972, there were no workers hired through want ads by 85 percent of the employers in San Francisco and 76 percent of the employers in Salt Lake. Less than half of the San Francisco employers had ever used want ads to recruit help; in Salt Lake, only 59 percent had ever done so. Instead, most employers apparently rely on a variety of ways to fill job openings—employee upgrading; "walk-ins"; referrals from unions, professional associations, family, and friends; and such third party brokers as public and private employment agencies and school placement offices.

Want ad users tend to be the larger employers, and are concentrated in manufacturing and service industries in both cities. In addition, Salt Lake employers in retail trade and contract construction (not a highly unionized field in Salt Lake) and San Francisco employers in wholesale trade and transportation use want ads more heavily than others do.

Among employers who do use want ads, the ads are important in finding workers. Nearly half of these employers have no other recruiting methods (about a third, however, list the same jobs with the employment service). Nearly half of the want ad users' new hires in 1972 resulted from classified advertising. Employers were most successful in getting clerical and sales personnel, and least successful in hiring blue-collar and unskilled workers by this means.

Surprisingly, the employers least likely to find the want ads useful were in the fields of finance, insurance, and real estate. The researchers had expected quite a different response because these industries consume a large amount of space in classified ad sections.

On an average Sunday, about 900 want ads appear in the San Francisco CHRONICLE-EXAMINER and about 350 in the Salt Lake City TRIBUNE. On the face of it, this might seem to be a generous number of opportunities for work. But what value do the classified pages have for the audience at whom they are beamed?

ORC sought answers by assessing the information that would enable jobseekers to use want ads to sort out suitable jobs for themselves. The gauge used was the information that is called for on employment service job order forms: Employer's name, address, telephone number; type of compensation; fringe benefits; education, experience, special skills, and knowledge required; working hours; licensure and bonding requirements; transportation needs; and the number of job openings. In addition, ORC analyzed the ads for stated or implied requirements on age, sex, and marital status. Then, the researchers interviewed a prime audience for the want ads—unemployed persons seeking work at employment service offices in San Francisco and Salt Lake City.

As a result of this study, ORC found the want ads wanting in what they offer jobseekers. The ads do not offer adequate, accurate, or easily obtained information that would make it possible for jobseekers to decide whether they are suited to a job, or want it. This is particularly true of inexperienced jobseekers.

Sex Designations Checked

In taking a look at want ads from the jobseekers' viewpoint, ORC also noted sex, race, and age designations in the ads. For example, the ads were coded for sex content in the following ways: Ads listed under sex headings (ads clearly asking for a man or woman); implied in the job title ("Girl Friday," "Salesman," "Waitress," and the like, unless the text contradicted the sex implied by the title); and implied in the text (comments such as: "Will be required to keep the men happy," "Must be attractive," and "Topless dancers"); and no sex implied.

Sex designations in the classified ads dropped dramatically between 1968 and

Experienced carpet and drapery sales person. Unusual opportunity for high earnings. Good company benefits. Excellent growth potential. Will consider only those with know-how to measure for carpets, drapes, vinyl flooring. Good taste and selling ability essential. Call Mr. Raab bet. 9 a.m. and 12 noon, Mon. thru

1972. Even so, sex designations continued to appear in the ads in 1972 (since then, the U.S. Supreme Court has ruled in support of laws forbidding such designations). In 1968, about 99 percent of the jobs listed in the San Francisco CHRONICLE-EXAMINER were identified by sex; in Salt Lake City, 88 percent of the jobs were so designated. By 1972, headings "Male" and "Female" were removed in both papers, but the CHRONICLE-EXAMINER continued to designate sex for 15 percent of the jobs in the sampled editions. The Salt Lake City TRIBUNE did so for 33 percent of the listed jobs.

None of the ads in recent years made open or covert reference to racial requirements.

Only about 6 percent of the want ad listings still specify age factors such as "young," "retired," or "mature." (Help wanted ads that indicate any specifications based on age are prohibited by the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967.)

The ORC research did not attempt to rate the ads as to whether they were misleading or represented valid jobs. Information on this aspect of the want ads, however, often was volunteered by the jobseekers who were interviewed during the course of the study. The jobseekers were asked: "What is your opinion about help wanted ads as a tool for finding work?" Their re-

sponses were listed as positive, negative, or equivocal and unclear. Complaints about misleading advertising made up nearly 20 percent of the negative reasons jobseekers cited during these interviews. Ads that they put in the misleading category frequently held out such enticements as: "Earn $20,000 a year and up! We will train you. No experience needed. Travel! Grow with one of the Nation's fastest growing firms!" Jobseekers found that many of these offers were come-ons for business opportunities rather than for jobs.

Consumer Issues Probed

Because there were many complaints of this type aired by jobseekers, the researchers looked into the question of whether ads are consumer items and covered by laws dealing with consumer fraud and misleading advertising. Representatives of law enforcement agencies—such as the Federal Trade Commission, the California State Attorney General's office, the Federal Attorney General's office, and the like—all agreed that classified want ads are consumer items. However, jobseekers who respond to misleading want ads have nothing as tangible as a financial loss to show that they have been wronged, and they are less likely than other kinds of consumers to file complaints about fraudulent advertising. The researchers decided that it is unlikely that law enforcement agencies will take action against newspapers or advertisers for false or misleading help wanted ads until jobseekers do make formal complaints.

Even though want ads have many serious faults, researchers found that the ads are used extensively—and with considerable success—by some of the jobseekers who were interviewed in employment service offices. Nearly 30 percent of the Salt Lake City jobseekers had found work by responding to want ads; in San Francisco, about 23 percent had done so.

But the jobseekers had an ambivalent attitude toward the ads. They were attracted to them as a convenient source of local job information, but were quite critical of them as a job search tool.

Classified want ad pages undoubtedly serve many employers and jobseekers as an open forum on jobs, ORC concluded. However, if want ad pages are to serve more people, and to serve them better, they must provide more complete information. ORC suggests that:

- Advertisers be required to provide a minimum of information about such things as a description of the firms and their activities, wage rates and types of payment, accurate job titles, and job locations.
- Help wanted columns be reserved for genuine jobs. All ads for business and training opportunities, such as ads that require any investment or purchase on the part of the jobseeker, as well as jobs that pay a commission and no salary, should be given specific designations and separate listings.
- All jobs listed by private employment agencies be classified under an agency heading.
- Jobs be listed alphabetically, by occupational title or under occupational headings.
- Consideration be given to separate geographical listings.
- Ad takers, who help formulate the language of ads, be required to have training in taking job orders in a uniform fashion.

Newspapers in a number of cities were asked to comment on the ORC findings. One newspaper pointed out that the standards of acceptance for newspaper want ads vary considerably, would have a significant impact on any study, and could result in incorrect comparisons unless all such standards were considered. A number of the responses pointed out that major markets can differ significantly and that this affects the kinds of jobs advertised, the employers who advertise, the volume of ads, and the like.

New Study Launched

On completion of this study, the question remained unresolved as to whether want ads were as good a source of local labor market information as other available sources. Under contract with the Manpower Administration, ORC has begun a new study in 12 cities to determine, at a given point in time, how the stock of local jobs that are open in the employment service compares, occupation by occupation, with the jobs advertised by employers. During a test period, researchers will be comparing the flow of new jobs, over a period of time, in the employment service to the flow of new jobs in want ad columns.

The results of this study, which will take a year, should be useful both to local manpower planners and to jobseekers. During the study, for example, researchers will test the hypothesis that the employment service offers more readily available and better codified data on the local job market than do the classified want ad pages, and that these data are cheaper to obtain. Also, the study results should enable jobseekers to determine where their best job opportunities are—in the want ads, or in their local public employment service offices. □

News & Notes

The Manpower Administration has provided funds to the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) to hire 50 jobs-for-veterans managers in 45 large cities. The new managers, all Vietnam-era veterans, direct the efforts of the NAB in developing job opportunities for jobless veterans. They work closely with the Manpower Administration's Employment Service specialists in job development and placement activities. The 50 are stationed in NAB offices covering geographic areas that together have more than 75 percent of the Nation's total of jobless veterans.

* * *

Many black high school graduates from families with low income aspire to a college education, a study made by the National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students (NSSFNS) indicates. Of some 80,000 black high school graduates of 1972 and 1973 who expressed an interest in attending college, half were from families with less than $6,000 annual income. NSSFNS Executive Director David B. Kent, Jr., said the study findings contradict the widespread belief that minority students from low-income families have little desire to attend college unless they made outstanding grades in high school. This mistaken belief, Kent said, results in low-income minority students being guided into courses that don't prepare them for college.

* * *

Nearly 329,000 placements of welfare recipients were made through the Work Incentive (WIN) Program between July 1972, when the program began stressing direct referral to jobs rather than training, and April 1974. Almost 200,000 of these persons were placed in jobs for which there was no public subsidy. Employers of more than 57,000 of those placed claimed a job development tax credit. Employers who hire WIN participants are permitted a tax credit of 20 percent of the employee's first-year wages if the employee is kept on the job a second year or leaves through no fault of the employer.

"What Can You Do?"—a 28-minute documentary film aimed at recruiting Hispanos into the health professions—is now available on a free loan basis to schools and organizations. Medical students, nursing students, and recent graduates—all from Hispanic backgrounds—describe in the film how they overcame financial, family, and educational problems to prepare to enter the health professions. The film can be borrowed from Association Sterling Films, Suite 601, 1701 N. Fort Myer Drive, Arlington, Va. 22209 and can be purchased from the National Audiovisual Center (GSA), Washington, D.C. 20409.

* * *

More and more women with children are going to work outside the home, according to the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). Between 1970 and 1973 there was an increase of 650,000 in the number of children whose mothers worked. Over the same period the total number of children in all families declined 1.5 million. The BLS also reported that among wives with children under 3 years old, the proportion who worked rose from 19 percent to 29 percent between 1963 and 1973. During 1972, 45 percent of women with children under 6 worked as did 57 percent of those with children between 6 and 17 years of age.

* * *

About 2,600 people will be trained in construction skills under three Manpower Administration contracts involving building trades unions and employers. Vietnam-era veterans will get priority in these programs. The biggest project—a $2.5 million contract renewal with the National Ironworkers and Employers Training Program—calls for recruitment and training of 1,200 persons, mostly minority group members, as ironworkers. The program offers training to workers over 31 years old, the limit for entry into apprenticeship in the ironworkers' union. About 800 jobless or underemployed workers will be trained as plasterers and cement masons under an $850,000 on-the-job

training contract with the Operative Plasterers' and Cement Masons' International Association. The union is subcontracting with the Portland Cement Association to administer the programs. The contract calls for preapprenticeship training for 630 persons and upgrading training for about 160 workers with previous experience as journeymen. Nearly 600 persons will receive preapprenticeship, apprenticeship, and journeyman training under a $383,000 contract extension with the National Joint Painting, Decorating, and Drywall Apprenticeship and Training Committee.

* * *

Fifteen women—the first ever to attend any of the Federal service academies—are among this year's plebes (freshmen) at the United States Merchant Marine Academy at Kings Point, N.Y. Five of the women are black and one is a Mexican American.

* * *

Operation MEDIHC, which has placed more than 15,000 military veterans in health care jobs or training since 1970, has received funds for another year of activity. The program, Military Experience Directed Into Health Careers, endeavors to capitalize on the military experience of veterans with health experience by recruiting them into the health care system. It is conducted by State agencies under contract with the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. More than $1 million was allocated to agencies in 48 States and the District of Columbia to continue the referral and counseling program for another year.

* * *

Thirteen universities have been selected to receive $1.5 million in Manpower Administration grants to train manpower administrators and planners. The grants will enable the universities to supply States and local communities with skilled staff needed to administer newly decentralized manpower programs. Each of the 10 Federal regions has one of the selected universities in its area. Three additional institutions were selected without regard to regional lines to emphasize training for blacks, American Indians, and Spanish-speaking Americans. The schools selected on a regional basis were Boston University, State University of New York at Buffalo, West Virginia University, Memphis State University (in cooperation with the University of Mississippi), Oakland University (Rochester, Mich.), University of Houston (in cooperation with North Texas State University), University of Missouri, University of Utah, San Francisco State University, and Oregon State University. Special grants went to North Carolina A&T State University, with a predominantly black enrollment; Pan American University, with significant Spanish-speaking enrollment; and Oklahoma State University, with significant Indian enrollment.

* * *

A model training and job placement program for Spanish-speaking offenders will be developed by Juarez and Associates of Los Angeles under a $350,000 Manpower Administration contract. When developed, the model will be used by cities and counties operating manpower programs under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) which need similar services. Participating in the program will be 150 prisoners—at least 20 percent of them women—from the California State prison system who are judged to have no real opportunities for suitable employment. Participants will receive needed training and special counseling before and after release. The objective is to place at least 80 percent of the participants in jobs and keep them there. Jobs will be obtained before the prisoners' release when possible.

* * *

Operation of the Charleston Job Corps for Women in West Virginia and the New York Residential Manpower Center at Fort Totten will continue for 2 more years under contracts announced by the Manpower Administration. The Charleston center, which has facilities for up to 345 young women and is operated by Teledyne Economic Development Co. of Los Angeles, will provide training in various occupations—food service, clerk-typist, keypunch operator, offset duplicating machine operator, nurse aide, and railway express agent and clerk and train clerk. The Fort Totten center, which has a capacity of 275 and is operated by American Technical Assistance Corp. in conjunction with three minority firms, Mobicentrics, Inc., Arawak Consulting Corp., and Experimental and Bilingual Institute, offers vocational training to young men in auto body repair, auto mechanics, carpentry, electrical work, and plumbing-construction. Since about half the enrollees are Puerto Ricans, Fort Totten has courses in English as a second language as well as bicultural programs.

* * *

The number of women enrolled in the Nation's medical schools has escalated sharply in the past few years, going up from 3,894 or 9.6 percent of total enrollment in the 1970-71 school year to 7,824 or 15.4 percent in 1973-74.

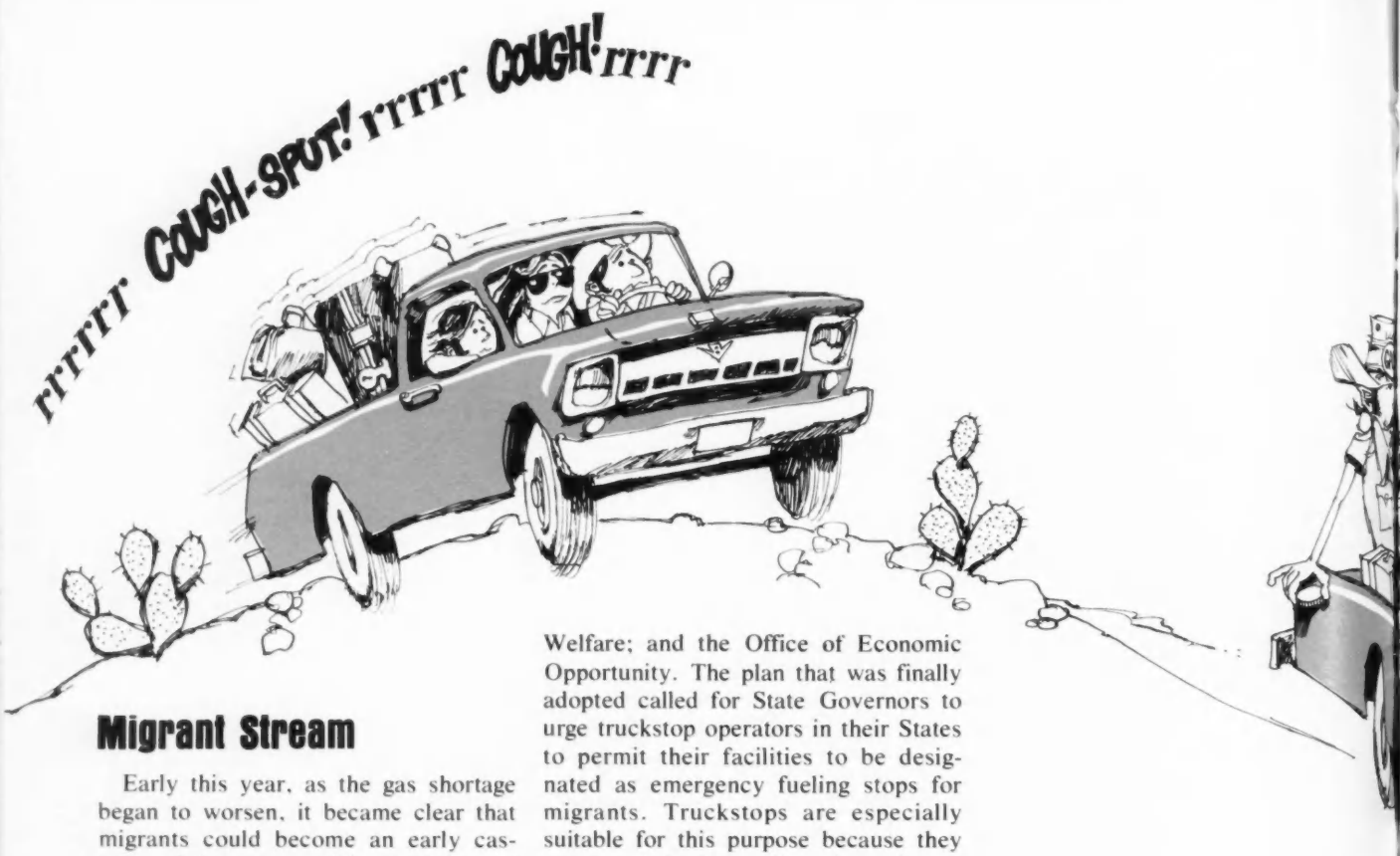
Keeping the Migrant Stream Flowing

Cooperative Effort by Government Agencies, Worker Groups Averted Gasoline Crisis

by Fernando Alegria, Jr.

Despite the tremendous increase in the use of mechanized equipment in agriculture, migrant labor still looms large at harvest time. Every spring more than 180,000 migrants start their long trek in search of agricultural work. Most of them flow out of Texas, California, and Florida to form three major migrant streams across the Western, Midcontinental, and Eastern United States. Some travel with crew leaders who provide bus or truck transportation, but the majority travel in their own cars and trucks for distances ranging from 500 to 5,000 miles. The migrants depend on this seasonal work for a large part of their annual income, while growers have come to depend on the migrants to harvest the crops.

Fernando Alegria is a manpower development specialist in the Manpower Administration's Division of Migrant Worker Services.



Migrant Stream

Early this year, as the gas shortage began to worsen, it became clear that migrants could become an early casualty of the energy crisis. And, loss of wages for the migrant farmworkers was only the beginning of the problem. The lack of labor would have a severe impact on production of asparagus and broccoli and other crops that require large amounts of migrant labor. In turn, this would eventually affect the consumer in the form of higher food costs.

A special study revealed that the loss in overall national agricultural production could be in the neighborhood of $500 million—a figure that did not include the money involved in processing, distributing, and marketing. Arizona, for example, might lose 27 percent of its fruit and vegetable crops, while New York, Illinois, and Ohio could each experience a 20 percent loss. Nationally, it was estimated that nearly 50 percent of the Nation's asparagus and broccoli crops could be lost along with lesser, but still substantial, amounts of lettuce, cantaloupe, watermelon, green beans, and apples.

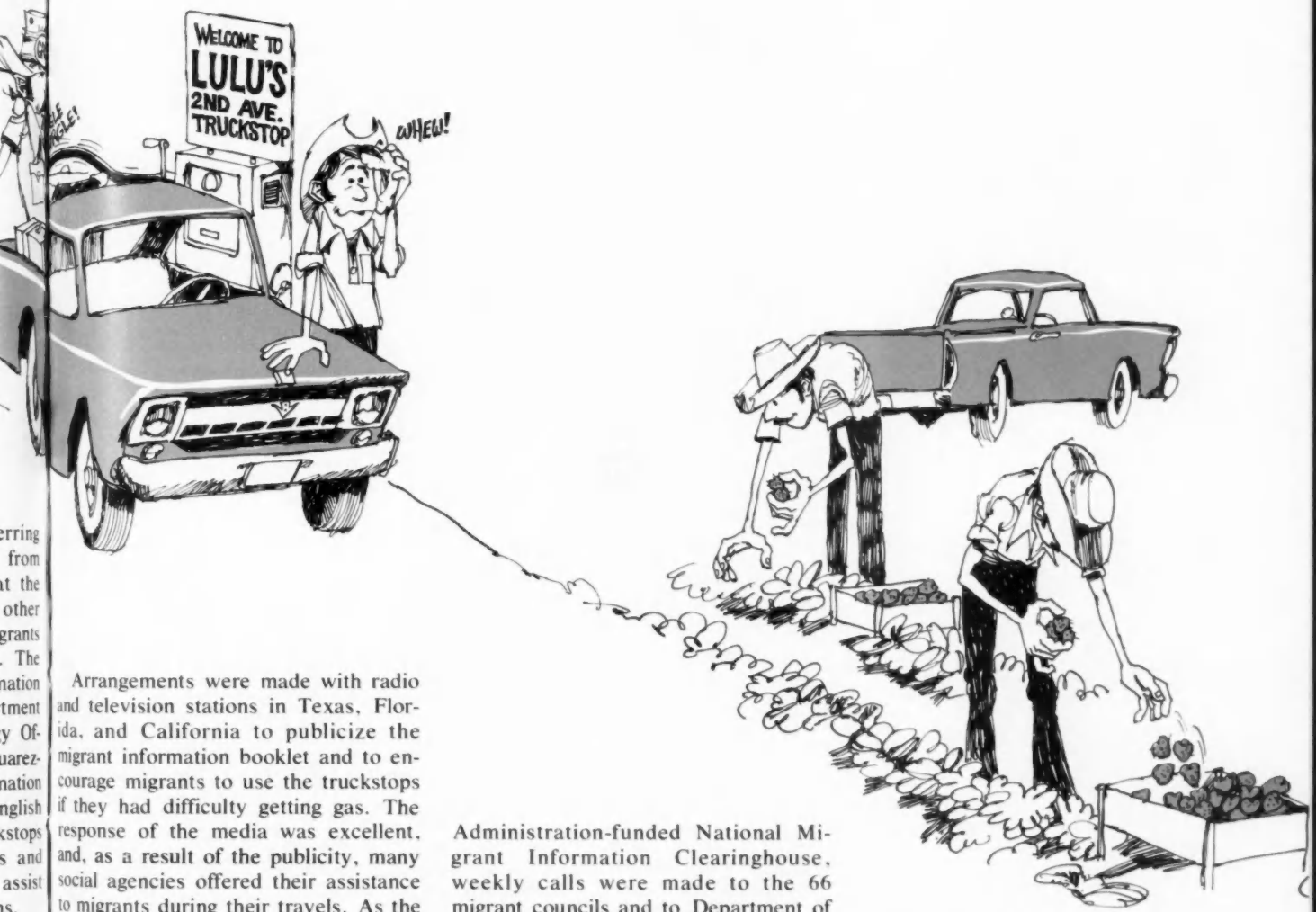
To develop and carry out a plan to help the migrants get to their destinations, the Department of Labor enlisted the aid of the Federal Energy Office; the Department of Agriculture; the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; and the Office of Economic Opportunity. The plan that was finally adopted called for State Governors to urge truckstop operators in their States to permit their facilities to be designated as emergency fueling stops for migrants. Truckstops are especially suitable for this purpose because they are located along all major migrant routes and most of them are open 24 hours a day, 7 days a week.

The Governors were asked to assure the truckstop owners that if sales to migrants depleted their gasoline they would be resupplied from fuel allocations set aside for the Governor to use in areas of critical need. The Federal Energy Office coordinated the effort with the Governor's offices and solicited the cooperation of the National Association of Truck Stop Operators in encouraging operators to participate in the program.

As an additional safeguard, the Department of Agriculture asked growers to be prepared to sell gasoline to migrants from their own bulk storage if migrants were unable to obtain it through normal public sources. The appeal was relayed to major growers through such organizations as the National Canners Association, American Frozen Foods Institute, and Vegetable Growers Association of America.

But how were individual migrant workers to be informed of what had been done to help them get to their destinations? Since a survey conducted in Texas early in March indicated that the energy crisis was not deterring significant numbers of migrants from traveling, it was imperative that the information on truckstops and other arrangements be given to the migrants before their departure in April. The first step was to compile an information booklet. Prepared by the Department of Labor and the Federal Energy Office with the assistance of the Juarez-Lincoln National Migrant Information Clearinghouse, the bilingual (English and Spanish) booklet listed truckstops along the major migrant routes and contained other information to assist migrants to get to their destinations.

Eighty thousand copies of the booklet were distributed to migrant families in Florida, Texas, and California. Printing and distribution were accomplished in less than 10 days by mobilizing the assistance of migrant councils funded by the Manpower Administration, employment service offices, Office of Economic Opportunity-funded community action agencies, and other interested community groups. The booklet proved to be in such demand that a second printing of 30,000 had to be made.



Arrangements were made with radio and television stations in Texas, Florida, and California to publicize the migrant information booklet and to encourage migrants to use the truckstops if they had difficulty getting gas. The response of the media was excellent, and, as a result of the publicity, many social agencies offered their assistance to migrants during their travels. As the final element in the information campaign, the Manpower Administration's Migrant Division took advantage of a previously scheduled meeting in Kansas City of representatives of the 66 migrant councils to brief them on the plans and their role in the effort to assist migrants during the energy crisis.

To identify fuel shortages occurring along the migrants' routes, the Manpower Administration established a fuel-monitoring system that operated during the 5-month migration season. Under supervision of the Manpower Administration-funded National Migrant Information Clearinghouse, weekly calls were made to the 66 migrant councils and to Department of Labor regional offices in Seattle, Denver, Chicago, and Atlanta to obtain up-to-the-minute information on any problems migrants might be having relating to the energy crisis. Based on these reports, the Federal Energy Office possibly could alleviate gas shortages through reallocation of available supplies. Although reallocation was never necessary, problems concerning the early closing and scarcity of gas stations in certain States were resolved by identifying additional truckstops which could be used by migrants.

As often happens, there were some unplanned spinoff benefits from the monitoring system. Weekly reports from the migrant councils proved to be a timely source of information concerning labor camps, housing, wages, employment, and a myriad of migrant-related problems.

And, of course, the entire operation and the effective cooperation it generated between government agencies and the migrants' organizations are excellent building blocks for future action should a gas shortage flare up again. □

Training Firefighters Through Apprenticeship

by Stephen Brown

Chief Views Program As Way to Expand Career Opportunities For Youth

As fire departments go, the Big Bear Lake Fire Department isn't very big. Its 14 firefighters protect a year-round resort area of vacation homes and pine forests only 16 square miles in size.

But the little California department could become the focus of attention of bigger departments around the country. The reason—it has one of

Stephen Brown is a U.S. Department of Labor information officer in San Francisco.

Big Bear Lake Fire Chief Donald Johnson explains the gauges on one of the department's trucks to apprentice firefighters (from left) Richard Vickers, Miichael Anderson, and Jeff Woodruff.

Since firefighters have to make their own beds in the station house's living quarters, training includes the fine art of folding a corner hospital-style. Anderson shows fellow apprentices Vickers (left) and Woodruff how it's done.

Chief Johnson shows the apprentices the equipment they will use if they have to make an ice rescue when Big Bear Lake is frozen.

the Nation's first apprenticeship programs for firefighters.

Big Bear Lake's location poses some unusual fire protection problems. Nestled high (altitude 8,000 feet) in southern California's San Bernardino mountains, the community is flooded on weekends by as many as 80,000 people—10 times the resident population—seeking to escape the smog and crowds in the Los Angeles basin below. Such an influx could tax the services of any fire department. In addition, the department has a mutual-aid agreement with the U.S. Forest Service.

But to Fire Chief Donald Johnson, the apprenticeship program is more than just an effective means of meeting the department's manpower needs. He also views it as a way to expand career opportunities for area youth who are faced with a restricted job market.

"I saw a need to provide jobs for the local kids," Johnson said. "With no industry up here, there's no future for them unless their dads own a business or they want to work in construction. The apprenticeship program gives a person a start toward a good occupation which pays a good wage."

The department's three apprentices, Jeff Woodruff, 19, Richard Vickers, 20, and Michael Anderson, 27, are being trained in all aspects of firefighting and rescue work. The latter includes training in cardiopulmonary resuscitation and in ice rescues on Big Bear Lake. Upon completing a 3-year apprenticeship, the three will become firefighters fourth class and start drawing full base salary. In the first year of apprenticeship, the men are paid 70 percent of the $866-base monthly salary for firefighter fourth class. The figure jumps to 80 percent in the second year, and 90 percent in the third year.

Besides on-the-job training, the apprentices are required to take job-related classroom courses good for 40 units of credit toward an associate of arts degree in the California State college system.

National standards for firefighter apprentices were developed by the Manpower Administration's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT) in cooperation with the International Association of Fire Fighters and approved by BAT early in 1972. The first program registered under the national standards got underway shortly thereafter in Bancroft, Colo. Big Bear Lake's registered program is the first in the U.S. Department of Labor's four-State western region and one of the first five in the Nation. □

Book Reviews

Timely Evaluation

Emergency Employment Act: The PEP Generation

Edited by Sar A. Levitan and Robert Taggart

Olympus Publishing Company, Salt Lake City, 1974. 257 pages, $9.50.

An astute political observer advised that the way to get a bill enacted was to keep its purposes vague. The objectives of the Emergency Employment Act, which created the Public Employment Program (PEP), were not so much vague as they were multitudinous and contradictory. The achievement of one objective often was possible only at the expense of another. In this kind of setting, an evaluation study could prove almost anything, depending upon which of the many objectives one chose to examine.

Emergency Employment Act: The PEP Generation is a distillation of State and local experiences with PEP in 10 political jurisdictions. The book is divided into two major sections: A brief overview of the program and 10 case studies written by field observers. Unlike some evaluations which do not appear until all interest in the subject has disappeared, this study is timely. It captures the implementation and operational experiences while they are still fresh. More important, it has the potential for providing information useful in policy formulation, program operations, and legislative proposals.

This usefulness, however, is limited by the tendency of Levitan and Taggart to judge PEP in terms of their own convictions rather than the major objectives of the legislation that established it. Their implicit assumption is that PEP should have been designated to serve those far back in the labor queues. The extent to which the authors' expectations have been built into their evaluation is illustrated by the observation that "PEP proved to be poorly structured to provide a laboratory for social experimentation." Members of Congress, as well as local officials, will be surprised to learn that PEP was intended to be a laboratory.

The book also pays a price for the speed with which it was prepared. In their haste to bring out an early study, the authors did not exercise sufficient care in dealing with preliminary raw data and have been willing to predict the outcomes of the program on early, undigested returns. This proves to be as hazardous as forecasting national elections on the basis of the New Hampshire primary.

The overview section of the book covers the purposes of PEP, its impact on unemployment, the type of participants, the nature of the jobs created in the public service, and the transition of program participants into nonsubsidized employment. The overview concludes with a number of observations and recommendations. The basic proposal is for creation of a permanent public employment program whose size would be determined by the extent of unemployment.

Although the volume is an evaluation of the Emergency Employment Act, it is difficult to find a clear statement assessing overall program results. There is chapter and verse to prove either the success or the failure of the program. The evaluation, like the legislation, is a set of compromises and the authors conclude that "all lessons are equivocal." Thus, such observations as, "It is inevitable that a program that promises so much ends by disappointing so many" (a very dubious assertion) are followed by the comment, "There was something for everyone." The conclusion that "the impact on unemployment was indiscernible" is balanced by the notation that "PEP is better than alternatives to reduce unemployment." There is criticism of too much Federal restriction at one point and loose Federal oversight at another.

In several instances, the book, by quickly skimming the top of the data, misses the hard-core issues much as program operators, by "creaming," missed the disadvantaged.

For example, on the important objective of "transition," the authors conclude that PEP did not meet its original target of placing half the participants on regular State and local public payrolls. Moreover, it is gratuitously asserted that these goals are not likely to be met. This is based on early estimates that 32 percent of the persons leaving the program were immediately employed in nonsubsidized public jobs, while another 22 percent were placed in the private sector. Use of later data would have presented a substantially more favorable picture. Within a month after leaving PEP, 48 percent (almost exactly the goal) of the terminees moved into nonsubsidized public jobs, and another 26 percent into private industry.

The authors discussion of civil service reforms is another example of "free" reporting. In the overview section, they discount the impact of PEP in opening the civil service system to provide permanent jobs. Yet a majority of the case studies make precisely the opposite point. Milwaukee "agreed to encourage transition of PEP personnel into regular and civil service employment through selective certification." The State of Utah felt that "personnel reform was a most significant accomplishment of Salt Lake City government during the program experience." Chicago and Los Angeles reported similar experiences.

The second part of the book consists of 10 case studies—four States, five cities, and an Indian Reservation—in which resident observers describe program operations and results in their localities. It is in this section, as the observers begin to deal with concrete situations, that the program and its problems come alive. The material is interestingly presented and instructive. The dominant themes are program implementation, characteristics of program participants, and the transition into nonsubsidized employment. In the main, the field observers considered the program to be successful.

As might be expected, the case studies are uneven in scope and in terms of the issues they address. As a result, the findings do not add up to a general picture, although the varied "snapshots" do provide useful insights into a great variety of the program's facets. In at least one instance, there is a tendency on the part of the observer to "go native" and become the advocate of the prime sponsor's position rather than the objective investigator.

As the first study of PEP, this book is a welcome addition to the growing literature on manpower. If a little more care and time had been taken in its preparation, its value to policymakers and program managers would have been greatly enhanced. Perhaps a later, more definitive study will do this.

William Mirengoff

Overtaken by Events

The Department of Labor

by Jonathan Grossman

Praeger, New York, 1973. 309 pages, $10.

In its 61-year history, the U.S. Department of Labor has seldom gained more than passing notice, yet few agencies in the Federal Government have a greater impact on the daily lives of the average American. Hidden in the maze of departmental bureaucracies are a range of programs designed, by congressional charter, to "foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment."

Although the broad goals of the Department remain intact, the approach to meeting them varies from administration to administration. Unfortunately, Jonathan Grossman's profile of the Department for the Praeger Library of U.S. Government Departments and Agencies comes in the midst of a major shift in program emphasis—a shift that appears to doom the book to obsolescence from the start. The fault here is not with the author, but the basic concept of the Praeger series which attempts to blend history with current events.

As a history of the Department, Grossman's book is both useful and often surprisingly candid. For students of the labor movement, Grossman's introductory history of the Department and the people who have run it provides valuable source material.

But Grossman runs into trouble when he begins to focus on the specific functions of the various departmental agencies. Here the effort to blend historical perspective with specific, current programs rather than sticking to the safety of broader functional analysis serves only to date the book.

Perhaps the best example of the problems of

Grossman's approach is his treatment of manpower programs. Although manpower programs account for nearly 90 percent of its annual budget, the Department's role has changed drastically with enactment of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). Although the Department will continue to fund manpower programs, the major responsibility for designing and operating them has shifted to state, county, and municipal governments. Yet little of this is reflected in the Grossman profile. Instead, the chapter on the Department's manpower function is an outdated recital of the various categorical programs that have since been replaced by CETA.

Another example of the impact of program changes dictated by the New Federalism but not significantly reflected in the Department profile is in the area of occupational safety and health. Here again, there has been a substantial shift in responsibility for job safety and health programs from the Federal to the State governments.

The role of the Department in labor-management relations also is subject to change. Although the Taft-Hartley Act initially envisioned that the director of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service (FMCS) would serve as the President's principal agent in major strike situations, that is not always the case. The role played by the FMCS director and the Secretary of Labor in handling strikes shifts from time to time, depending on who holds those positions, the President they serve, and even the specific strike in question.

All of this is simply to point out that while portions of this book are a valuable history of the Labor Department and reflect Grossman's fine credentials as an historian, the book often fails to meet the needs of anyone who might be reading it with an eye toward a career in government—one of the apparent purposes of the Praeger series.

Frank W. Swoboda

False Hopes

False Promises—The Shaping of American Working Class Consciousness

by Stanley Aronowitz

McGraw-Hill, New York, 1973. 415 pages, $10.

Some skepticism is in order on any book that attempts to interpret the impact the labor movement has had on the sweep of social history in the U.S. from colonial times to the present. If the writer is an intellectual who has become dissatisfied with unions and the collective bargaining process, he is apt to vent his righteous indignation by indulging in highly speculative accounts of what might have been had the labor movement followed a course more to his liking. From laborphiles, on the other hand, we too often get unadulterated praise and acceptance of the objectives and accomplishments of the trade unions.

False Promises is an analysis by Stanley Aronowitz, a former union staff representative, of events that have helped shape the thinking of American workers. Aronowitz examines in some detail the changing relationships between management and professional, white-collar, minority, and young workers; the way these groups view each other and society; and the role of unions in representing working people.

Aronowitz covers a wide range of social, economic, and political developments affecting immigrant and nonimmigrant workers from the Civil War to "post industrial" America today. In so doing, he is much better at describing production line tensions than at explaining his vague and compulsive philosophical imperatives.

Aronowitz unleashes an angry attack on unions and their leaders. He maintains that while unions initially gave the appearance of being instruments of deliverance from exploitation for working people, they have lapsed into vehicles of collaboration and repression themselves. Too often, however, his criticism of unions is general rather than specific.

Aronowitz believes the downfall of American trade unions began with passage of the Wagner Act, which he sees as a successful attempt to bring the class struggle of workers under the aegis of Government supervision. This allegation is quite wide of the mark. The Wagner Act was based on the obvious premise that an inequality of bargaining power existed when workers were not organized—an inequality detrimental to the workers' well-being. It marked a turning point in U.S. labor-management relations, and the overwhelming majority of workers in the private sector of the economy have benefited from it.

From the Wagner Act treachery, Aronowitz moves into an attack on a number of labor leaders. Michael Quill of the Transportation Workers Union and Joseph Curran of the National Maritime Union were dictators, Walter Reuther of the United Auto Workers an opportunist. By agreeing to no strike clauses and long contracts, Aronowitz charges, these men and others like them sold out the workers' fight against company speedups and wage freezes. Yet, he acknowledges in another chapter that most working class children by the 1940's never experienced hunger because of victorious union struggles for job security, health benefits, and pensions.

The author's dislike for the unions' lack of revolutionary zeal also manifests itself in his charges that throughout the late 1940's and 1950's workers continued their efforts to capture control over their organizations. These struggles went on through movements for internal reform. But the promise of internal democracy was never fulfilled, Aronowitz says, due to bureaucratic trade union leaders who became increasingly conservative in their political outlook and prevented significant change. These serious allegations are not validated by supporting information.

Aside from these broad and unsupported generalizations, Aronowitz does address himself to some very serious challenges facing both union and management representatives. Our increasingly complex and indifferent industrial society presents situations and problems never faced before by workers or union leaders.

His perceptive observations about the stultifying conditions under which production-line auto workers toil in Lordstown, Ohio, makes one wonder why they do not strike more frequently. Aronowitz writes well in creating an understanding of conflicts over the work ethic and differences in racial and ethnic attitudes that lead to frustration and the feeling of isolation of many workers.

It would be a mistake, however, to view this as a uniquely American phenomenon. As the technological revolution proceeds, alienation of the individual from his work and the society in which he lives is a problem of increasing significance in most industrial nations, whether capitalist or socialist. Workers see themselves as appendages of indifferent unions and enormous machines created by the corporate structure to produce more regardless of human consequences.

The changing attitudes of young and minority group workers toward their unions and the quality of their work and private lifestyles will have far-reaching consequences for labor relations. The benefits of our affluent consumer society are proving inadequate to fulfill their needs, Aronowitz says. Labor and management must begin to address themselves to these concerns as well as to wages and hours of work.

Although most Americans are conscious of the presence and influence of labor organizations, few have much understanding of why and how they became such an important factor in our industrial and national life. Unfortunately, for the general reader in search of an equitable presentation of unions' contribution to working people, *False Promises* constitutes false hopes.

Arthur F. Kane

The Reviewers

William Mirengoff, who retired from the Manpower Administration last year, was director of the Public Employment Program from 1971 to 1973.

Frank Swoboda is the national labor correspondent for McGraw-Hill publications.

Arthur Kane is education director of the American Federation of Government Employees.

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Single copies of Manpower Administration publications for which no price is indicated can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the Inquiries Division, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Room 10225, 6th and D Sts., NW., Washington, D.C. 20213. Requests for copies of other free publications listed should be sent directly to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212, or to the address given in the specific listing. Please enclose a self-addressed label with all requests for free publications. For publications not available free, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, or the specified address given, and enclose payment.

A New Approach to Manpower

Manpower Administration booklet designed as a quick reference for State and local elected officials on the background, general provisions, and operation of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. Includes a listing of materials that provide a detailed description of the legislation and how it will be administered.

Federal Manpower Policy in Transition—National Manpower Advisory Committee Letters

Manpower Administration 98-page book presents letters summarizing the findings and recommendations made to the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare by the National Manpower Advisory Committee between June 1972 and the termination of the Committee in December 1973. Also includes key documents which served as committee agenda as well as selected communications to the President and the Congress. Letters resulting from the first meetings of the Committee (between September 1962 and December 1971) were previously published in *Manpower Advice for Government*.

Comprehensive Job Service

Manpower Administration folder, directed to prime sponsors of manpower programs under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, tells what kind of help in planning and operating manpower programs is available from the State employment service.

Major Programs 1974, Bureau of Labor Statistics

Bulletin presents in highly concentrated form the scope of the Bureau of Labor Statistics principal programs. Selected major characteristics of more than 40 programs are grouped into related subject-matter areas. Frequency with which data are made available, principal publications in which they appear, and some of the principal uses of the data are shown. A brief narrative accompanies each major subject-matter grouping.

National Apprenticeship and Training Standards for Automobile Mechanic, Body Repairer, and Painter

Manpower Administration booklet contains revised national standards of apprenticeship adopted by the Automotive Service Councils of America, Inc., to provide well-planned, properly supervised training for apprentices in the field of motor vehicle servicing and repair.

Equal Employment Opportunity Guaranteed Under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act

Manpower Administration folder, directed to employees, briefly discusses how the new Comprehensive Employment and Training Act guarantees equal employment opportunity for poor, unemployed, and underemployed people.

So You're Going to Alaska Looking for a Job

Manpower Administration folder warns prospective jobseekers of the doubtful possibilities of job openings for persons who are not Alaska residents.

National Apprenticeship and Training Standards for the Photographic Equipment Repair Industry

Manpower Administration booklet contains national standards of apprenticeship adopted by The Society of Photo-Technologists to help and encourage employers, independent repair shops, and manufacturers' service facilities to establish and administer registered apprenticeship training programs.

Road to New Horizons: Adjustment Training

This program guide, with a basic curriculum directed to the level of the educable mentally retarded, is designed primarily for teaching personal, social, and work adjustments to vocational rehabilitation clients at Gracewood State School and Hospital in Gracewood, Ga. However, it should be helpful to junior and senior high school teachers of the educable mentally retarded. The program guide is organized into three areas of emphasis: Personal adjustment, social adjustment, and work adjustment and preparation for community living. Each area is divided into individual teaching units containing suggestions for lesson plans, teaching materials, and devices for evaluating the effectiveness of the unit. Available from Information Service, Materials Development Center, University of Wisconsin—Stout, Menomonie, Wis. 54751. Specify Reprint Series No. 7. $2.

Small-Group Instruction Theory and Practice

A study prepared by Human Resources Research Organization describes some of the more commonly used small-group instructional techniques and the rationale behind them and provides an analysis of their potential use for various types and conditions of instructional environments. Part I is a handbook of methods for small-group instruction. Part II is an analysis of the theory and state of the art of small-group instruction. Available from Human Resources Research Organization, 300 North Washington St., Alexandria, Va. 22314. $3.95.

Years for Decision, Volume 2

Second progress report on a Manpower Administration 5-year longitudinal study of the labor market experience of a national sample of young women 14 to 24 years of age. Summarizes some of the information yielded by the second round of interviews conducted between mid-December 1968 and mid-March 1969. Focuses on changes in educational attainment and educational aspirations, interfirm movement, geographic mobility, and the extent of occupational information possessed by the respondents. Specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 24, vol. 2. $1.70.

☆ U.S. Government Printing Office 1974: 583-521/2

His biggest problem was getting the job.

When John was hired five years ago he had good skills but I was apprehensive about his working here. The first thing I thought of was our workers' compensation rates. And then there was the question of how he was going to get around, how he'd get along with the other employees, and if he'd be too sick to handle the job on a daily basis.

Let me tell you he's worked out just fine. He's done his job well, my workers' compensation rates have actually gone down, and he's sick less than anyone in the whole place. You know, in the beginning I thought I was doing the guy a favor; now I've found that John has really done me one.

The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped

The School of Visual Arts Public Advertising System

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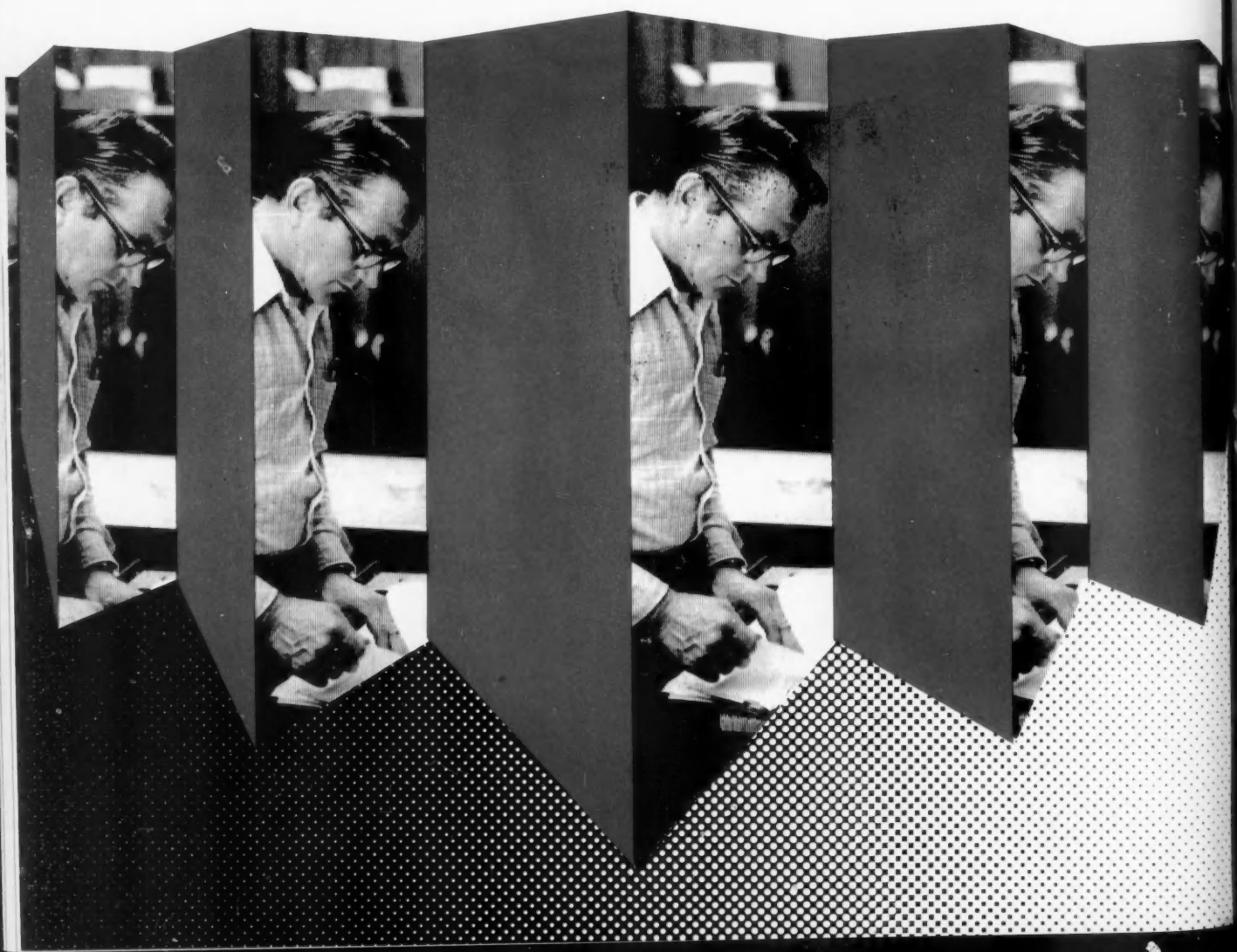
Subsidized public service jobs should be transitional and lead to regular jobs, manpower policymakers agree. How to achieve this goal—and how to measure the achievement—were the concerns of an experimental project in Vermont. For more information on this project, see *Public Service Jobs as Transitional Employment* in this issue of MANPOWER.